

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 2

Continuing The Historical Outlook

FEBRUARY, 1947

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1947

Teaching and the Ideal Teacher

HOMER T. ROSENBERGER

United States Department of Justice, Washington, D. C.

In these days of converting from a war-time regime to an era of long-range planning and ultra-scientific development, it might be well to re-examine the standards set for the teaching profession.

The pattern of American culture as well as that of American economy is rather largely a product of public education. In view of the fact that the quality and worth of public education are in great measure the result of the type of persons who spend their lives as classroom teachers, it becomes obvious that one of the important problems of "reconversion" in this country is to do a superior job of selecting and encouraging prospective teachers. The work should be done in such a way as to result in bringing to the average classroom men and women who have the ability and desire to lead students toward practical and high goals.

Teaching is a *real* job. It is one of the most important today. Teaching is one of the most exacting of professions. True success in this profession requires numerous special qualities. Many of these qualities, of course, are qualities of personality. Frequently these qualities are overlooked or underestimated.

The type, quality, and amount of instruction that is given in a nation in one decade largely determine the affairs of that nation during the next decade. Nearly all great leaders have realized this. Napoleon built an educational system in France and tried to control it. Lesser men have tried to emulate him. In this country we believe in education—in a democratic educa-

tion that will guarantee the greatest good to the greatest number.

No educational system is better than its teachers. Hence the selection and training of teachers is a problem of vital importance. But before one can select and train teachers, the objectives of education must be examined. When these objectives are determined the qualifications of teachers can be established.

What are the objectives of education? What characteristics are essential to success as a teacher? These are questions that have been debated for years. As a result many objectives have been set forth and numerous requirements for teacher certification have been established. By their multiplicity the objectives somewhat dissipate themselves and specific requirements for entrance to the teaching field are frequently too rigid. A briefly-stated objective may be too elastic.

In spite of these possibilities this writer has tried to clear his own thinking on the matter by stating in a few sentences his views concerning teaching and the qualities a teacher should possess. The ideal is seldom attained, but it should always be aimed at by the teaching profession. Consequently, the writer decided to set the standards high and attempted to search out an ideal objective of teaching and the qualities of the ideal teacher. After much puzzling over the matter, and consideration from a number of angles, the following statements evolved:

To show people how to live a happy and

useful life and to inspire them to live such a life is the teacher's task.

The ideal teacher must have an intense and unceasing desire to teach, must possess good judgement, be sincere, and, in addition, must have the following four qualities:

A Wholesome Character. The ideal teacher must be a good example, for much of a teacher's effectiveness is the result of example.

An Inspiring Personality. The ideal teacher must be able to awaken interests in students.

A Sound Intellect. The ideal teacher must be able to understand the subject matter taught and be able to make adjustments to new situations.

A Desire and Capacity for Work. The ideal teacher must have a desire to search for truth and useful knowledge and must have the necessary physical and mental vigor to carry on extensive observations and researches.

It is the teacher's function to show people how to live happy and useful lives. Furthermore, it is the teacher's duty to translate such teaching into action by inspiring students actually to live happy and useful lives in contrast to desultory and selfish or definitely harmful lives. Too frequently the teacher's task is not completed. The student is only shown best methods but is not inspired to adopt them.

In order to point the way, and inspire, a teacher must love his or her profession. Many teachers look upon their job merely as a source of livelihood and yearn for placement in another field, while a large number of people who desire to teach are denied the opportunity, especially in times when this profession is "overcrowded." A teacher needs good judgement and must possess sincerity. An erratic schemer is not the best material for a teaching position.

Character, personality, intellect, and a desire and capacity for work are also essential qualities of the ideal teacher. Numerous teachers possess only three of these four qualities, and, in spite of great success as an elementary, high school, preparatory, college, or adult education teacher, fail in part because of the lack of one of the four qualities. A teacher may be of good character, with an inspiring

personality and sound intellect but be indolent or physically unfitted for the rigors of the profession. Some rather outstanding teachers have lacked only character, or personality; some have had excellent character, inspiring personality, and a desire and capacity for work, but because of a lack of sound intellect have failed to understand subject matter and make adjustments to new situations. In each of these instances the peak of perfection was missed, usually by a wide margin, to the detriment of many students.

The ideal teacher is a scholar and a diligent worker. As an elementary teacher or college professor he or she may publish observations and researches in addition to using them in the classroom.

By virtue of abilities, definite planning, or fate, the teacher may become outstanding or remain comparatively obscure, but in every case the teacher who approximates the ideal accomplishes worthwhile results. Henry Van Dyke has given us one of the finest tributes that has ever been written in honor of teachers, in the following words:

PRAISE FOR THE UNKNOWN TEACHER

I sing the praise of the unknown teacher.

Great generals win campaigns, but it is the unknown soldier who wins the war.

Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the unknown teacher who delivers and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager, and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which, in later years, will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact. No one has deserved better of the republic than the unknown

teacher. No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "king of himself and servant of mankind."¹

Joy Elmer Morgan has written eloquently of the contributions of the teacher:

The teacher is a prophet. He lays the foundations of tomorrow. The teacher is an artist. He works with the precious clay of unfolding personality. The teacher is a friend. His heart responds to the faith and devotion of his students. The teacher is a citizen. He is selected and licensed for the improvement of society. The teacher is an interpreter. Out of his maturer and wider life he seeks to guide the young. The teacher is a builder. He works with the higher and finer values of civilization. The teacher is a culture-bearer. He leads the way toward worthier tastes, saner attitudes, more gracious manners, higher intelligence. The teacher is a planner. He sees the young lives before him as a part of a great system which shall grow stronger in the light of truth. The teacher is a pioneer. He is always attempting the impossible and winning out. The teacher is a reformer. He seeks to remove the handicaps that weaken and destroy life. The teacher is a believer. He has abiding faith in the improbability of the race.²

Unless a man enjoys his work and realizes its importance, he cannot make a complete success of it. William Lyon Phelps tells us of the joy of teaching and the importance of the profession:

¹ National Education Association, *Journal* (January, 1927), p. 15.

² National Education Association, *Journal* (May, 1932), p. 155.

I do not know that I could make entirely clear to an outsider the pleasure I have in teaching. I had rather earn my living by teaching than in any other way. To my mind, teaching is not merely a life work, a profession, an occupation, a struggle; it is a passion. I love to teach. I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a musician loves to play, as a singer loves to sing, as a strong man rejoices to run a race. Teaching is an art—an art so great and so difficult to master that a man or a woman can spend a long life at it, without realizing much more than his limitations and mistakes and his distance from the ideal. There never has been in the world's history a period when it was more worthwhile to be a teacher than in the twentieth century; for there was never an age when such vast multitudes were eager for an education or when the necessity of a liberal education was so generally recognized. It would seem as though the whole world were trying to lift itself to a higher plane of thought.³

During a span of twenty or thirty years, a tremendous influence is exerted by an individual teacher. Normally, a million persons—or one out of about every 140 people in the United States—are engaged in teaching. The teachers come into close and frequent contact with approximately one third of our population. In view of these facts, it is not difficult to recognize the need for doing everything possible to attract the appropriate type of person to the teaching profession.

³ Edwin A. Lee and Others, *Teaching as a Man's Job* (1938), p. 56.

Learning Through Living

BENJAMIN ROWE

High School of Music and Art, New York City

Just as the weavers of Rochdale banded together to better their economic conditions, so a group of teen-age youngsters joined to satisfy a felt need. Students at the High School of Music and Art were constantly asking: "Where can I buy a manuscript notebook for theory?"

"I'm out of rosin—where can I get it in a hurry?" "My reed is broken; I haven't any time to go downtown. Where can I purchase one?" "Gee whiz! I need a Regents' Book. Do you know where I can get one cheap?" "I'm out of drawing pads and I need it in a hurry"

—is there a place around here that I can get it?" "I need a kneaded eraser—and there's no art supply store in my neighborhood. Too bad we haven't a school store." Such comments were heard most often—but little was done to remedy the pupils' needs.

In the Spring of 1941 the Social Studies Club of the school listened to a talk by one of the faculty, Mr. August Gold, on "Cooperatives." The discussion period elicited questions as to "Why can't we have one?" The students wanted to learn more about co-ops, so Mr. Gold returned at subsequent meetings. A Co-op Committee was appointed. The members of this committee met several times a week discussing the nature of cooperatives. Finally, its members suggested the advisability of forming a school cooperative club. The new club had the endorsement of its parent organization, the Social Studies Club, for many of its members desired a greater understanding and knowledge of cooperatives, and they also desired to concentrate on social, economic, cultural and political questions which couldn't be accomplished too well if the Co-op Committee existed as a part of the Social Studies Club. Hence, in the fall of 1941 there came into existence the Co-op Club with Mr. August Gold as its faculty advisor and with many of its students members of the Social Studies Club.

For several terms the Co-op Club learned about co-ops through discussions and actual visits to the consumer cooperatives in the city and to the Eastern Cooperative Wholesale. Finally, in the Spring of 1943, the students felt that they knew a good deal about co-ops. They desired action. They were tired of being passive—they now wanted to be active participants. They had their need for art and music supplies. They now craved satisfaction in actually securing, and participating in the acquisition of, such supplies; and in the sale of such commodities to their fellow students.

A committee from the Co-op Club saw the administrator of the school about the advisability of organizing a co-op in the school. After a series of meetings with the school administration, the decision was made that such a store could not be sponsored by the school due to limitations of administrative allowances. This is a budgetary factor outside of local

school control. The boys and girls were undaunted in their enthusiasm and their zeal to create a cooperative store. The clamor for a store of their own where they could conveniently buy art, music and school supplies grew. They started looking for a location outside of school. They soon found a small store at 493 West 135th Street. It was about a block from the school. The immediate neighborhood had no stationery or student supply stores—so this store was, from the point of accessibility to the students, ideal.

The store was located in the basement of an old tenement house. The empty store was old and dirty. It had, and still has, no electricity, but that didn't discourage the teen-agers.

The store was rented for \$20.00 a month. Ann Wilcox,¹ who was then Co-op president, and Joan Zilbach, arranged for the members to reconvert the wreck of a store into an inviting atmosphere. The store was to be opened the first week in October, 1943. For three weeks prior to the grand opening, the youngsters raced there at the close of their school day, donned dungarees, old flannel shirts and smocks in the privacy of the two-by-four bathroom, commonly known as the "Office," and scrubbed, plastered and painted.

In a few weeks the filthy mess of six inches of dust, rot, crumbled walls and faulty floor, ceased to exist. The glamorous-looking boys and girls, in their jeans and baggy shirts, aprons and dust caps and fatigues, transformed the store. The place was painted with cold water paint—the kind that comes in a thick gelatinous mass, and which has to have the water kneaded in by hand. The walls were plastered, and the floor was mopped, scrubbed and scoured. The windows also had to be scrubbed, and every day too, because it was at this time that the neighborhood children began to get interested. They did their "darnedest" to hinder the co-oppers by throwing mud at the windows, paper and dirt through the door, and "what have you." They would also walk right in and establish a "beach-head" in the middle of the room, throwing around their

¹ Ann is now a Senior at Smith College and was the leading spirit in organizing a stock market trading co-op at Smith. This unique college venture in securities trading has received much publicity.

marbles, model airplanes, dogs — and each other.

This new store was an event to the neighborhood kids who resided mostly in tenements. These under-privileged youngsters wanted to mingle with the oldsters from the high school, but they just didn't know how to behave or how to mingle with the more advanced youth. As for the co-oppers, they were divided into two groups—those who wanted to throw them out by brute force (after they saw that reasoning with them didn't work), and those who "still believed in child psychology." They compromised. They combined the two "psychologies"—and got nowhere.

It wasn't until many months later, after they had been actively functioning as a store, plus the "kids" as permanent fixtures, that they finally converted a few of the older boys and girls and had them helping the high school co-oppers in controlling their younger brothers and sisters. Even after this the store lock was stopped up twice, and in the winter snow balls were on occasion thrown in through the transom. Today the difficulty has been lessened, for the high school girls discovered that if they got the little five- six- and seven-year olds and read or told them stories about Bambi, Cinderella, and others, they would have the little ones cooperating with them. And so, while customers are buying, it is not unusual to see clustered around Sally some ten tots listening to their favorite stories.

The boys and girls constructed a temporary counter out of orange crates, and arranged various pieces of "furniture," such as salvaged wood, a glass-covered bookcase for displays, which was donated by a teacher, a three-legged table, and a battered bulletin board.

At the same time the youngsters were selling twenty-five cent shares to students, graduates, teachers, parents and friends. After a sizable amount was collected, a hastily formed committee went scouting the city for art, music and school supplies. They didn't know exactly what to get, nor did they have enough money to buy a large amount of stock. At the time they were open for business the shelves were rather bare.

The students thought some items would be most popular. As a result of not knowing how much to get in the case of several items, there are still a hundred or so unsold rolls of music

tape and several dozen little blocks of 'cello rosin wrapped in kelly-green folders.

The opening of the Co-op store was publicized by word of mouth and by mimeographed throwaways. The grand opening had a good turnout. The students liked the idea of having a "supply station" so near school, and started giving the Co-op suggestions for merchandise. The Co-op salesmen became adept at their jobs, and when they went out as buyers for the Co-op they got to know where to get the "bestest for the leastest." The Co-op store soon added "extra-curricular" items such as candies, cookies, M & A (Music and Art) pins and banners. At holiday time they sold Christmas and Easter cards and trinkets which had been made by art student Co-op members. The furniture became more elegant. They constructed a more substantial counter, and painted it a bright green. Someone found a "mangy" bulletin board with lists of sales help and places for customers to put stock suggestions. One of the teachers "dug out" a "swell glass enclosed book case" which was ideal for displays; and the interior decorating staff fixed up window displays. The words, STUDENT SUPPLY CO-OP were lettered on one window along with the pine tree co-op symbol.

They ordered, too, many co-op pamphlets for distribution to customers; and they bought a "load of books" on co-ops: *The People's Business*, by Joshua Bulles, which were sold at sixty cents. One of the boys donated his collection of some 200 slightly worn twenty-five cent pocketbooks which were sold for ten or fifteen cents apiece. They also sold new and used Regents' review books—which were one of the "hottest" sales items.

The students still persist in attempting to have the Co-op recognized by the school administration. They have tried to convince the school authorities that the Co-op store is beneficial to the school body politic, but they have made little progress. However, there is a general acceptance of the fact that the students did gain a great deal of experience by organizing and running the Co-op—but the matter has not yet been resolved. At present, the Parents Association is interested. A committee from the school P.T.A. visited the Co-op, and as a result the parents bought \$100 worth of shares. The Parents Association is now pressing for

recognition of the Co-op as a school-sponsored program.

In order to raise additional funds other than the sale of shares at twenty-five cents per share, or through the returns from sales, the students hold occasional square dances. These functions are very popular, and teen-age co-oppers have a wonderful time at these affairs which are held at different churches and community centers in New York City. The small admission price and the sales from refreshments enrich the Co-op store somewhat. The band and entertainment are furnished by the music student Co-op members.

The Co-op store is run by a Board of Directors. Their officers are the President, Treasurer, Secretary and Educational Director. In addition, there are on the Board the buyers of school supplies, Regents' books, music supplies, art supplies, the SCO-OP and publicity director, maintenance manager and rebates manager.

Membership in the Co-op is based on the Rochdale principles of free and open membership; one vote per member; also, goods are sold at market prices, patronage dividends are in proportion to what the person buys (the surplus is re-invested); and a general membership meeting is held at the end of the term.

In the three years of operation no patronage dividends have been declared. "The 25c per share but one vote per person" has 670 stockholders of whom close to 400 are in school. The stockholders are the students, graduates, teachers, parents and Parents Association, friends and relatives. They have paid over \$600 in rent. Business activity fluctuates. Sales are heavy at the beginning of the term, during mid-term examinations, and at the end of the term. However, it averages about \$5.00 per day—and this Co-op store is probably unique in that it is open for only about one hour per day after school—for its sales force and buyers are in school during most of the day.

At present the stockholders have about \$300 in bills. They possess about \$400 in stock. They pay the city sales taxes. They have liability insurance up to \$10,000 with a Farmers' Mutual Co-op.

The membership is open, the control is democratic. The store is too small for a general

membership meeting, so meetings are held in the Episcopal Orphanage around the corner from the Co-op. The Board of Directors appoints a sales staff for the term; each term a new staff is appointed with an overlapping of some of the old, thus providing for continuity and experience for each. The store maintenance manager takes care of the general over-all functions. The Board of Directors meet weekly in the store. The teacher, Mr. August Gold, stays in the background, never interfering, but always around for advice and suggestions. He and other teachers are ready to offer guidance and assistance as individuals since they don't do it as school sponsored advisors in view of the official non-recognition policy of this off-campus Co-op.

Students elsewhere have heard about the Co-op, and student visitors from Bronx Science and Stuyvesant High Schools have visited this only public high school off-campus, non-officially-recognized co-op. They were interested in forming co-ops in their own school. They felt that theirs might be recognized, and would be able to obtain quarters within the confines of their school buildings.

These student exchanges of information are valuable in their social relationships and in promoting cooperative information, education and inquiry.

The Music and Arters receive the "Campus Co-op Newsletter," and are in touch with the movement for a Federation of Campus Co-ops initiated through the Cooperative League of the U.S.A. Although there are a number of campus and student co-ops in New York City, they are all operated by folks above the high school age—and none by a public high school.

The Music and Arters are an energetic group. They wrote letters to the Eastern Cooperative League seeking to form a Federation of Youth Co-ops in New York City. Their educational and publicity committee issues a mimeographed publication called SCO-OP standing for School Co-op. Through the Co-op Club in school, which is distinct from the Store, moving pictures such as "Here Is Tomorrow," "Let's Co-operate," "Traveling the Middle Way in Sweden," and "Planning a Safer World," have been shown. Outside visiting lecturers come to the Co-op Club; and its members make visits to the co-ops in the New York City area.

Within the school courses of study, co-ops are studied in social studies classes—but the dynamics of cooperative education unfold in the everyday workings of the Co-op Store, and in the activities of the Co-op Club.

Probably from the minutes of the Student Co-op Supply Store Board of Directors meetings, one may have an awareness of the problems, education and growth of the members of the Co-op. Hence, let us look at some of the items in the students' own language which have been extracted from their minutes. Studying and analyzing these items can give but one conclusion to those who seek to develop and constructively utilize the capabilities and capacities of our youth:

October 25, 1945

... reported the store was in bad condition—mostly messy. A tour of the Eastern Co-op Wholesale is to be held on November 5, 1945. Christmas sales must have more advertising.

January 17, 1946

We must be more careful of the Daily Cash Report. Many careless mistakes have occurred. The SCO-OP distribution committee will consist of ...

January 24, 1946

This is a general membership meeting which is being held in the Episcopal Orphanage.

Treasurer's Report ...

Total sales for term, \$492

Average daily sales, \$4.92

Losses from September, 1945, \$45.00

\$65.00 in bank

\$200 inventory

Deficit of almost \$200 ...

A mural for the store was suggested.

February 8, 1946

A share drive was started.

February 15, 1946

Have publicity to remind teachers that supplies in their fields may be bought at the Co-op. ... A new system of checking on the day's supplies will start on Monday. Every article bought is to be entered on a slip by the storekeeper, and then tallied up. The Co-op is in desperate need of money. It was suggested that lump sums be lent by willing parents ...

February 21, 1946

A committee to investigate the possibility of installing an ice cream freezer was suggested ... Getting dry ice and delivery are two problems. ... A committee was formed to see the Parents Association president about having co-ops approved in school. ... The advantages are that more education can be done, and more shares sold in school ...

February 28, 1946

SCO-OP will be out every three weeks. SCO-OPS will be given out in the morning, before school near school entrances.

March 7, 1946

... discussed and agreed to buy 2,000 book covers to sell at 5c (5 for 20c) with school program card emblem, and school colors—designed. ... Laura will do another window display for pocketbooks. ... Rosanne reported that soda was more practical to get than ice cream. She will find out about a cooler.

March 14, 1946

The sales staff was revised with maximum of four or five per day. ... Book covers ordered can't be gotten with program card emblem. Will have another design. The front flap will tell supplies carried in Co-op, and the back flap will have the school song. ... Rosanne reports that the coca-cola machine costs \$600 and we can't get one anyway because we would have to be liable for it. That ends that. ... We may be able to get some art and school supplies from the Eastern Co-op Wholesale.

March 21, 1946

A committee was formed for the square dance. People are needed for calling, music, and to work on the refreshment committee. ... Treasurer's report—total cash for week, \$37.54. Average per day over \$7.00. ... Items from the Eastern Cooperative Wholesale must be picked up. Students who will go there will meet. ... General art supplies, such as paint, brushes, etc. are needed in the store. The Parent-Teacher's Committee attended the Board of Directors meeting today to look over the store. They decided to buy \$100 worth of shares (400 as a whole.) ... The general appearance of the store should be improved. People like clean stores, which

is an important factor if they are to come back. . . .

March 28, 1946

Square Dance date decided to be April 18, 1946. Committee for hall-hunting . . . refreshments . . . 200 tickets will be printed. Melanie will investigate the printing aspect. . . . Mural committee—Eugene will block the mural on 11'5" manila paper. Committee to get and cut the paper includes John Burnham and Gloria. . . . The check for \$100 from the Parent-Teacher's Association arrived. A meeting of the executives on April 6 will decide what bills are to be paid with the money. . . . Walter is going to make seating accommodations for the store on Saturday at 10:00 A. M.

April 4, 1946

Art supplies are still needed to boost sales which are going down. . . . The Square Dance is on April 18 at 8:30 P. M. Tickets are 30c and should be printed as soon as possible. Alice K. will call at the Square Dance. Signs for the party will be made by Billy S., Gloria S. and Brenda. . . . SCO-OP is to be given out tomorrow at 8:15 A. M. . . . The store may be painted but nothing is definite as yet.

April 11, 1946

The financial report for March is as follows:

Total sales, \$28.54

Disbursements, \$251.75

Clear, \$29.70

Average daily with shares, \$13.41

Average daily without shares, \$7.52

The Campus Co-op group will meet during Easter week, April 23 and 24. Our group got a formal invitation to discuss the possibilities of forming a youth federation. Delegates are . . . The Co-op store has received an invitation to become a member of the Eastern Cooperative League. The dues would be the only barrier to prevent us from joining. Moe Z. is the delegate to investigate the possibilities.

May 2, 1946

At the Directors' meeting . . . definite conclusions were reached pertaining to the distribution of the \$100 from the P.T.A. It was decided that the bulk would be spent to buy the much-needed art supplies . . . we need paper, paints, brushes, etc., in order to start

our big art supply campaign. . . . Neighborhood children will not be allowed in the store, it was decided, after a bill for \$1.50 came to us for tearing a child's coat. This was done while trying to get the kids out of the store. . . . It was decided to have another Square Dance on May 29th, Wednesday at the Community Center (\$20). 150 tickets will be printed at 40c per ticket. The increased price may exclude people from the often too-crowded Square Dance.

May 10, 1946

Art supplies arrived. . . . It was decided to charge the following prices: large illustrating boards, 50c; spiral sketch pads, 55c; 6 bottles of tempera, 60c; water color tubes, 15c; 1/2 pt. turpentine, 10c. . . . A report from the members who attended the Campus Co-op meeting was given. Bronx Science High School has started a co-op in the cafeteria; and teachers at Julia Richman High School are interested in starting one. . . . It was decided that we would spend an entire meeting in the future discussing the consolidation of the various Youth Co-ops in the city.

May 16, 1946

. . . Mark Rowan will speak to the Co-op Club in Room 111, Tuesday. . . . A special issue of SCO-OP will come out advertising new art supplies. This photostat edition will cost \$8 or \$9.

The minutes indicate clearly that the boys and girls are intelligently living and working together in a common enterprise. They are cooperatively and democratically planning and solving their problems. They are alert, possess initiative, and have an awareness of what's going on around them. Their activities are constructive and very meaningful to them. They have survived through periods of shortages of goods and rising prices. They have persisted and persevered in spite of obstacles and impediments placed in their way.

In this age when much is being written about juvenile delinquency, and the lack of initiative and responsibility of our youth, these teenagers have demonstrated that they can work together as a team; that they can have work experience as a part of their education; that

they are alert to new trends in the social and economic structure. It has been "inch-by-inch going" on their own. Is it not well to seize upon their interests, recognize their business

officially—and sanction such enterprises elsewhere? These young girls and boys are showing that our American youth can organize and sponsor constructive, democratic group living.

Man's Rise Toward Freedom: A Social Studies Unit¹

FLORA M. STAPLE

State Teachers College, Duluth, Minnesota

SCENE VII

THE NORTHWEST ORDINANCE

Narrator:

When the American colonies declared their independence from Great Britain, several of them had conflicting claims to lands north of the Ohio River and west of the Allegheny Mountains. Maryland objected to joining the Union under the Articles of Confederation unless Congress took control of this territory. After much controversy over the matter, Maryland joined the Union, and the claimant states, by a series of cessions, relinquished their claims to the Northwest Territory. The desire to settle the territory made it necessary that a Congressional plan for land sales and a satisfactory government be inaugurated.

The next scene will be a dramatization of a meeting between the committee appointed to plan for an ordinance to govern the Northwest Territory and Dr. Manasseh Cutler of Massachusetts, who had been invited to New York to present his views on a satisfactory ordinance. The members of this committee were Messrs. Dane of Massachusetts, Lee and Carrington of Virginia, Kean of South Carolina, and Smith of New York.

CURTAIN OPENS

Dr. Cutler:

Gentlemen, in response to your invitation, I am here to give my views touching on an ordinance providing for governing and developing the Northwest Territory. As you know, I represent the Ohio Company of Associates which wishes to buy much land in the territory. I feel sure that you will be interested in the desires of this company, for the Treasury

of the United States is surely in need of the money that might come from the sale of these western lands. A plan of government is immediately needed to give deeds to the land, and to keep order in the territory.

Mr. Dane:

Yes, Dr. Cutler, the committee appointed to organize a plan for such a government will, within a very few days, present it for the consideration and vote of Congress. We shall make changes so as to include some provisions that you suggest. We should like to have you submit a statement of your views in writing in order that we may carefully consider the advisability of incorporating them in our plan for an ordinance.

Mr. Lee:

As you know, Mr. Dane, Congress has become a rather ineffectual body and some members appear to feel that the Land Ordinance of 1785 is adequate. It does provide for the surveying of land which is to follow the pattern of New England, and for dividing it into townships six miles square, each containing thirty-six sections or one square mile. It is true that we should recognize and make use of the work done by Jefferson, Grayson, and others who were responsible for planning the ordinances of 1784 and 1785, but a new and improved ordinance is needed to insure effective government and proper handling of land sales. Since you arrived in New York, your presence among the delegates has stimulated interest and I am very hopeful for passage of the ordinance.

Dr. Cutler:

If the ordinance is passed, we shall need a good man for governor of the Territory. I shall suggest Arthur St. Clair, the present president of Congress.

¹ Parts I and II appeared in the December, 1946, and January, 1947, issues of THE SOCIAL STUDIES (Ed.)

Mr. Lee:

Mr. Carrington, what do you consider one of the best provisions of the proposed ordinance?

Mr. Carrington:

I feel that the cause of democracy will be greatly benefited by the provision to divide the Northwest Territory into states when the country is sufficiently settled.

Mr. Kean:

Mr. Lee.

Mr. Lee:

Yes, Mr. Kean.

Mr. Kean:

In speaking of furthering democracy, I am reminded that there might be danger of the new states adopting some type of government other than a democracy. We must see that these states provide for a democratic or republican form of government before being allowed to join the Union.

Mr. Smith:

For the full development and perpetuation of democracy all the people must be educated and therefore I like the provision which states that one section of land in each township be set aside for the support of education.

Mr. Carrington:

Fully as important, I believe, is the clause which insures freedom of religion.

Mr. Dane:

Since slavery has spread so rapidly in this country, I think it should certainly be prohibited in the Northwest Territory. You remember that a clause excluding slavery was written by Thomas Jefferson into the first draft of the Ordinance of 1784 but rejected by Congress, and also that Rufus King suggested that such a provision be included in the Land Ordinance of 1785. His suggestion was not followed, but as I am to write this, which we hope is the final draft of an ordinance for governing the Northwest Territory and for the sale of land in the whole of that territory, I should like the permission of the members of this committee, to write in a clause forever forbidding slavery in the said territory. (Each member of the committee gives his assent.)

Mr. Lee:

Briefly then, if this ordinance is adopted it will provide for orderly sale of land, and insure

freedom from slavery, education for all, a guaranteed democratic form of government for the Northwest Territory, and supply a plan for the admission of any states which may later be formed from that territory.

Dr. Cutler:

As you have concisely outlined your plan for controlling and developing the Northwest Territory, it has appeared to me a good one, indeed, but I hope you will make a few changes which I shall very promptly suggest to you in writing. I shall then enthusiastically lobby for the adoption of the ordinance.

(Dr. Cutler rises, and others also rise.) Thank you. Good-day, gentlemen.

(Dr. Cutler takes his leave as each member of the committee bows or says, "Good-day.")

CURTAIN CLOSES

Narrator:

This ordinance was adopted by the Second Continental Congress in July, 1787, only a few weeks before the signing of our Federal Constitution. We believe that it is the wisest plan for the government and development of territories that man has yet put into operation. It has formed the pattern for the territorial governments of the United States and for the admission of new states into the Union.

Perhaps, if after the First World War, the colonial possessions of the countries of the world had been governed as wisely as our Northwest Territory by a world governmental organization, the Second World War might not have occurred.

Music:

"Home on the Range."

SCENE VIII

THE AMERICAN BILL OF RIGHTS

Narrator:

Our American Constitution, hailed by the world today as one of the greatest documents ever written, nearly failed to be ratified because it contained no Bill of Rights. Some states consented to ratify it only with the understanding that during the first session of the new Congress, a Bill of Rights in the form of amendments be added. In the next scene President George Washington and his cabinet are discussing with James Madison the advisability of proposing such amendments in Congress.

CURTAIN OPENS

Washington:

At the request of James Madison, I have sent for you to discuss the matter of a Bill of Rights to be added to our Constitution. I believe we have come to the point where we must do something. As you know, several states, including Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York, ratified the Constitution with the recommendation that there be added a Bill of Rights which should specifically safeguard individual rights.

Madison:

Yes, Mr. President, I represent Virginia, and the people of my state are looking to me to see that their recommendations are carried out, but I have as yet accomplished nothing.

Hamilton:

President Washington, a Bill of Rights is wholly unnecessary! All the rights such as freedom from search and seizure and the right of trial by jury are already implied in the Constitution. Do you not agree, Chief Justice John Jay?

John Jay:

Quite so, Mr. Hamilton. To strengthen further such rights would, I believe, entrust too much power in the hands of the common people. As an example, freedom of speech and the press might be used unwisely by them. What do you think, John Adams?

John Adams:

Indeed, Mr. Jay, I too distrust the radical ideas of the commoners. However, it seems well that we consider this matter.

Washington:

In this cabinet, the chair for the Secretary of State is still vacant because Thomas Jefferson is still attending to his duties as United States minister in France. Were he here, I am sure he would strongly advocate a Bill of Rights.

Madison:

Yes, President Washington, I have with me (taking letter from his pocket) a letter that he wrote to me after he had seen a copy of the Constitution. Let me read a paragraph from it. (Reads) "I will now tell you what I do not like. It is the omission from the Constitution of a Bill of Rights providing clearly for freedom of religion, freedom of the press, pro-

tection against standing armies and trial by jury."

John Jay:

Men, we must not act hastily! I feel that the Constitution is complete just as it is. Wouldn't that be your opinion, Mr. Randolph?

Randolph:

(Stroking his chin thoughtfully) Yes, our Constitution is a very fine document. Yet, a Bill of Rights might have a beneficial and restraining influence on the minds of both rulers and the people, and it might serve as a definite basis for future court decisions in protecting individual rights.

Washington:

Yes, the Constitution is indeed a praiseworthy document, but we need not be alarmed if a Bill of Rights is added to it. Amendments embodying certain rights will not change, but only supplement, this great document. I now appoint you, James Madison, to plan for a national Bill of Rights.

Madison:

Thank you, Mr. President. We have a good example in our Virginia Bill of Rights which was drawn up by George Mason. I hope that I shall be able to lead Congress to propose a similar Bill of Rights for our nation. I feel sure that we shall succeed. As our dear friend and wise advisor, Benjamin Franklin, once remarked: "Honesty will justify our means; history will applaud our ends."

CURTAIN CLOSES

Narrator:

Indeed, history has applauded the efforts of these men. Of the twelve amendments submitted, ten were ratified by the necessary number of states by December 5, 1791.

These amendments have been the beacon-light of democracy. In some future day, may the poor and suppressed peoples of the world have the privilege of being guided by a similar beam!

Music:

"America the Beautiful."

SCENE IX

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Scene:

Room in the Palace at Versailles. (Mob music is played throughout the scene.)

Narrator:

The weight of heavy taxes and the pangs of hunger drove the people of France, during the latter part of the eighteenth century, to revolt. Shortly after the Fall of the Bastille, a band of women marched to Versailles to meet with the National Assembly. A group of their representatives and the President of the Assembly were sent to the palace to see the king. Keyed to highest pitch with excitement, they await his arrival.

CURTAIN OPENS

Characters:

Mounier, three French peasants, King Louis XVI.

Mounier:

If only the king would hurry! The cries of our people grow louder! They are mad with hysteria! (Cries such as "We want food!" "On to Paris!" and "Give us bread!" can be heard.)

First Woman:

Speak not of the action of the mob, Mounier. For months the people have been without food while the members of the royal household and the nobles of our land have feasted. 'Tis time we rebelled!

Second Woman:

Yea! We have as much right to eat and to live as they. Should we not enjoy some liberty and freedom, too?

Third woman:

Even now, my own little ones . . .

Mounier:

(Interrupting) But it will not be long now . . . (King enters)

King Louis XVI:

Ah—good day, my people. (Mounier and three women nod or bow and reply, "Good day, your Majesty")

Mounier:

(Presenting document) Your Majesty, the Declaration. We are here to demand that you sign this so we will be assured of the freedom we deserve.

First Woman:

And we want bread! Our families . . .

King Louis:

Aye, and all the bread in Versailles shall be yours—and now!!! (He ignores Mounier.)

Mounier:

But, your Majesty, the Declaration . . .

King:

(Speaking to Mounier) And what care I for your Declaration? Have I not given my word?

(Noise of crowd grows louder—"Remember the Bastille!" "We want bread!")

Mounier:

Your word means nothing to us! Sign quickly! The people are waiting.

(King Louis sits thoughtfully for a moment; scowls as he hears the crowd shouting, "We want bread!" Finally, picks up a pen and signs. Mounier and the women leave the stage. As he goes out, Mounier shouts to the crowd, "It is signed!!" The crowd cheers, then continues cries of "The king to Paris!" "Remember the Bastille!")

Music:

"The Marseillaise."

SCENE X

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION

Narrator:

Lincoln once said, "If slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong." But when he became President of the United States, he did not believe it his duty to free the slaves until it became a military necessity for winning the Civil War. Then, as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, he issued the Emancipation Proclamation to free the slaves in the rebelling states. After a New Year's reception at the White House on January 1, 1863, Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation.

CURTAIN OPENS

Lincoln:

(Enters and wearily seats himself in a chair before his desk.) I am glad that's over!

Negro Mose:

Here am yo' drink o' water. Yo' shur look worn out, Mas' Lincoln.

Lincoln:

(Taking the glass of water.) Thank you, Mose. Yes, these big receptions are tiring affairs. (Drinks water and hands glass to Mose.) Mose, this is a big day for some of your race, for soon I shall sign a paper giving many of them freedom.

Mose:

Praise de Lawd! Do you mean you'll set my people free?

Lincoln:

Yes, Mose, I shall free those Negroes in all the rebelling states.

Mose:

God bless you, Mas' Lincoln! Bless you!

(Knock is heard at the door. Mose announces Secretary of State Seward and his son, and ushers them into the room.)

Mose:

Mas' Lincoln, Secretary of State Seward and his son, Fred.

(Seward and son enter.)

Lincoln:

Good day! Mr. Seward.

Secretary Seward:

Good day! President Lincoln.

Lincoln:

How are you, Fred?

Fred Seward:

Very well, thank you sir. But how are you? After shaking hands with people for three hours, are you not completely exhausted?

Lincoln:

(Laughingly) I am somewhat worn.

Secretary Seward:

Mr. President, here is your Emancipation Proclamation. It has been checked over in the Department of State, and all that is needed to make it a real document is your signature. (Hands manuscript to Lincoln.)

Lincoln:

Let me once again read a part of this to you while you listen for any further corrections that may be needed. (Picks up the paper and starts to read) "I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power invested in me as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion . . . and as a fit and necessary war measure . . . do . . . in the year A.D. 1863, order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States or parts of State [in rebellion against the United States] shall be free; . . . and that the Executive Government . . . including military and naval authorities thereof, will . . . maintain the freedom of said persons. . . . And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, unless necessary in self-defense; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages."

Secretary Steward:

I see no place for improvement in the phrasing, and I believe the proclamation is both right and timely. Slaves are now producing food for the South and in many ways releasing white men for their armed forces, as well as actually serving the army by such work as the digging of trenches.

Fred Seward:

Then, too, the Northern people are not enthusiastic about raising money to support the war, and many men are resisting the draft. The North would rally to a great cause such as the abolition of slavery.

Secretary Seward:

And the South would lose the sympathy of European countries if slavery were clearly an issue in our Civil War.

Lincoln:

Yes, what I do is mainly save the Union, and "our country cannot survive half slave and half free." (Picks up pen and pauses.)

I have never in my life felt more certain that I was right than I do now in signing this paper. But I have been receiving calls and shaking hands since nine o'clock this morning, till my arm is stiff and numb. Now this signature is one that will be closely examined, and if my hand trembled they would say, "He had some compunctions." But anyway it is going to be done. (Signs his name and looks at it rather quizzically.)

It is rather trembly.

Fred Seward:

(Looking at the signature) It is better than I thought it would be from a hand that has been squeezed and wrenched by so many other hands.

Secretary Seward:

(Receives the pen from Lincoln and writes his name.) Sumner has asked that the pen with which this great document is signed, be placed for safe keeping in the archives of the State House of Massachusetts.

Lincoln:

Certainly, that is the pen with which a document that has legally freed many slaves has been signed, and I believe the time will soon come when all our slaves will be free. "Can't you see the signs of the times?"

CURTAIN CLOSES

Narrator:

Lincoln did correctly interpret the signs of the times, for less than three years later the Thirteenth Amendment to our Constitution freed all the slaves in the United States. In this step, freedom was extended to those other than the white race.

Music:

"Battle Hymn of the Republic."

SCENE XI

WILSON'S FOURTEEN POINTS (1918)

Narrator:

In his annual message to Congress on January 8, 1918, during the First World War, President Wilson announced his famous Fourteen Points. One historian has said of these Fourteen Points, "They pointed the way to a new world." You, the audience, may take the part of Congress of the United States as we dramatize Wilson's speech.

(SCENE IN HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES)

Speaker:

Gentlemen of the 65th Congress, I present the President of the United States.

President Wilson:

Mr. Vice-President, Senators, Representatives, and ladies and gentlemen. As I address you our country is waging a desperate war in the hope that we and our allies may win it and follow up our success with a just and lasting peace. The winning will not be easy; the enemy is most successful in battle, but "nothing shall turn us from our course" until the tide has turned and that enemy gives up and peace is restored to the world.

Let us plan now the making of a peace that will point the way to a new world. In this new world there should be no secret treaties; the seas should be free to all nations both in peace and in war; there should be free trade everywhere if it is possible; warlike instruments should not be manufactured in the future, except for those necessary for police protection; dependent nations should be given new control of themselves. These are points which I believe should apply to all countries. There are others which I believe should apply to Germany and the lands her armies have invaded. Russia should be restored; Belgium must be evacuated and restored; devastated France must be reconstructed, and Alsace-

Lorraine must be returned to France; Italy must have the lands in which the majority of the people speak Italian; Austria-Hungary must be given independence; the Balkan countries must be restored and boundaries established according to nationalities; Turkey must have her just rights, but must not control other people or prevent freedom of passage through the Dardanelles; and Poland must be given her independence.

Finally the greatest point which I should like to see incorporated into a peace plan is a covenant of "free peoples" for a league of nations that shall serve as a sort of federal constitution of the world and provide for enforcement of peace terms and prevention of future wars.

I hope that you and the people of the United States approve these fourteen points and that after the war is won, they can be put into effect in a peace treaty. I feel that this is perhaps the only way the world can be saved from another terrible war.

CURTAIN CLOSES

Narrator:

As you know, the terms of Wilson's Fourteen Points were not fully carried out, and the world was again plunged into a terrible war worse than the First World War.

Music:

"Stars and Stripes Forever."

SCENE XII

THE ATLANTIC CHARTER

Narrator:

An event which will be of historic importance for years to come took place in August, 1941, off the coast of Newfoundland, on an American vessel. This was a meeting between President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill, at which they planned the eight points of the Atlantic Charter, a document which is really not so much a plan as a promise to the countries that were under the power of Nazi Germany.

Realizing that then in many places, man had lost many of his hard-won rights, these two men set to work making a plan by which they believed those rights might be regained and others added.

The setting of the following scene is the United States ship *Augusta*.

CURTAIN OPENS

(As they sit together conversing, Churchill is smoking a huge black cigar, and Roosevelt a cigarette held in a long holder.)

Churchill:

Franklin, if the promises which we have outlined during our secret meeting here can be put into effect after this war is won, peace and freedom will be insured to all nations.

Roosevelt:

Yes, Winston, we have said that our countries are fighting for no gain in land or extension of power over others; they desire no change in boundaries except by "wishes of the people concerned"; they respect the right of all people to choose their form of government; they believe that all countries should have "access on equal terms to the trade and raw materials of the world"; and there should be "improved labor standards, economic advancement and social security, freedom on the seas and abandonment of the use of force." Then we have included two new freedoms, which if won, will constitute two mighty steps in *Man's Rise to Freedom*. These are *freedom from fear and freedom from want*.

Churchill:

I feel satisfied that we have done a good work. Let us affix our signatures to the charter. May it be the basis for a better future for the world.

Roosevelt:

Like many another good plan, its success depends upon sincere cooperation in carrying out its principles.

CURTAIN CLOSES

THE FINALE

THE UNITED NATIONS CHARTER

Narrator:

Representatives of the United Nations met at San Francisco on April 25, 1945 and there established an international organization to be known as the United Nations. In the preamble of the Charter of the United Nations the delegates reaffirmed "faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations, large and small." Will the United Nations' organization be a success, expand, and make possible for the future a real "One World" with true freedom everywhere? Whatever success is achieved will most likely depend in a great measure upon our generation.

We are tomorrow's hope! we'll
give our all

To make secure the peace the
world *must* know.

Our fathers and our brothers
fought to win it,

And we will guard it well and
make it grow.

(This poem was written by an eighth grade girl, Jessica Page.)

CURTAIN OPENS

A tall, well-built boy dressed in white trousers and white shirt loosely open at the neck and with sleeves rolled up is standing on a pedestal holding the "torch of freedom" in one hand, and a large book under the other arm. About fifty children representing people of the United Nations are standing around the central figure, "Man," singing the "United Nations' Song."

CURTAIN

Motivation in History

JOHN ROOZE

Head, Department of History, Chicago Christian High School, Chicago, Illinois

To many high school students, the study of history is the fancy of the moss-grown teacher who symbolizes the ancient past. "Of what earthly use is the stuff?" "What am I ever going to get out of this?" These are frequent

high school lamentations. I have been "blessed" with the privilege of having a large number of students who are taking history as a required subject; in consequence I have felt the forceful challenge of motivating these young people.

Though it has been an exceedingly difficult task, it has paid large dividends. I have been forced to consider and reconsider whether the class work is meaningful and significant to the learners. Then, too, they have the benefit of frequent discussion on the questions: "Why should these facts be remembered?" "What makes them significant?"

If the subject itself does not interest the student at the beginning of the course, his desire to study it will have to be developed by the teacher. And certainly, if there is to be a transfer of interest, the teacher himself must have a contagious enthusiasm for the subject. A wide acquaintance with the whole field of history, a wealth of information, a deep insight into the significance of movements, a living interest in the affairs of the day—all these, coupled with a thorough knowledge of his students, are possessions which the teacher finds basic to any attempt on his part to put vitality and meaning into his teaching of history. What reader of Macaulay, Parkman, Rhodes, Adams, or Fiske, can lay down his volume without a sense of admiration for such history? Can anyone who reads Macaulay's *Essay on History* feel less than pride at the profession he is pursuing? Nor can anyone who has caught some of the enthusiasm of Allan Nevins's *Gateway to History* fail to pass on to his students the spirit to which he has become heir. From the overflowing of his heart, his mouth will speak.

Yet it must not be presumed that merely the teacher's interest in the subject, however basic and indispensable that may be, is sufficient. It is the student who must share the interest of the teacher and must gain an insight into the value of the subject he is studying. If, as Rogers points out in his book, *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, therapy is not possible unless the patient sees the need for improvement and correction, so, also, the true value and significance of history can be taught only when the student begins to make the entire subject the object of his search. On the other hand, the process by which Rogers brings about his psychic change is a gradual one. The truth must come to the patient slowly—insight must be gained through a process. So, too, it must not be expected that, before we

begin our first lesson in history, we must complete our motivation. Motivation should not only precede, but should continue through, the entire course in history. It should be part and parcel of every well-planned lesson.

This truth has impressed me many times. During the course of my teaching I have had a considerable number of students who came to my classes with a hatred for history. That attitude, of course, could not be permanently changed simply by introductory motivation. However, in the course of time these pupils awoke to a new conception of the content of the history we taught—not a series of unrelated facts, dates, and political intrigues, but a living account of the social life of men.

Perhaps I might be more specific. Recently a student who had always seemed to me to be rather indifferent, and who looked with some hesitant concern at the unit outline I had handed him on the subject of slavery, expressed delight at the flesh and blood presentations that arose from a class study of the life of the Negroes on the plantations—their work songs, their spirituals, their afflictions in the sugar industries of Louisiana. Another young fellow, who had always been interested, expressed keen satisfaction at the historical background presented for Lowell's poem on freedom, and Whittier's "Ichabod"; he remarked about the added meaning which such literature took on when placed in its historical setting. Such motivation is of the functional kind, not of the type that merely gives an introductory "adrenaline" injection.

The organization of the history course materials can serve effectively as motivation when it clearly presents to the student the objectives of the study to be pursued. The reaction of the student to a carefully-planned course is usually a favorable one. He will see objectives and work for them; he will know what is to be accomplished and will set out to do the work. Recently I planned a unit on "Italian Unity," in modern history. When we began to work on the "Unification of Germany," some of the students asked for the unit outlines. Their comment was: "Those outlines really helped us to study. May we have them again?"

Besides furnishing the student with definite objectives, careful organization serves to show

that all-important phase of history—relationships. Lord Bryce wrote in his *Holy Roman Empire*: "In history there is nothing isolated." This is a significant principle in motivation. Pointing out relationships, following cause and effect, tracing the shift of public opinion—these often cover the dead bones of history's skeleton, and make it live and move and have being.

A spirited review has frequently served as a real aid in developing interest. When closing a study of feudalism in the late Middle Ages, I selected from the class a few "nobles," "ladies," "serfs," "children," and had them give stories of their home life, accounts of their castle or cottage homes, of their relations to neighboring lords, etc. Serfs were permitted to discuss the comparative treatment of their lords, and vice-versa; wives told of the escapades of their husbands, and children commented on the long cold winters in the castles. Before the stories were begun, the objective—a review of the feudal system—was set up, and, by and large, the narrators did very well in holding to it. Of course, the occasional "clown" will enter such scenes, but even this one produced a wholesome reaction when he introduced an electric motor for operating his turnspit at the castle fireplace. In such a situation, the mental action required in reliving the lives of those people about whom we had studied was a pleasant method of making the history functional knowledge.

History frequently presents an opportunity for the enjoyment of the best type of narrative. Even the most languid, mentally-lazy student will get a thrill out of the story of Magellan's voyage with its mutiny and starvation, or from the account of the storm-tossed vessels of Gilbert, or from the records of the struggle of Menendez to gain control over Florida. These thrilling events have their place, and for areas such as Illinois and Michigan, the travels of La Salle furnish a geographic contact that frequently doubles the interest. The lasting value of such narratives lies, not in the mere story, but in all the attending information that inevitably goes with it: description of travel, considerations of food supply, and motives of the explorers. Many a student has asked to borrow the book from which I presented a

small quotation while telling the story of Menendez, and thus I found opportunity to suggest the reading of Parkman's *Pioneers of France in the New World*, or perhaps his *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West*. "Tell us a story" is not the request of the primary pupil only, but in subtler form also expresses the desire of the high school senior. If I may judge from reactions of the students, the senior is just as responsive as the second or third grade child to the story that has the color of adventure and the sound of reality.

The historical novel offers an abundance of materials for reading that relates clearly to the narrative in history. Let a student give an informal account of one of the novels of Kenneth Roberts: *Arundel*, *Rabble in Arms*, or *Northwest Passage*, and the American Revolution will live for students as it has never done before. Here are real men in action, men moved by motives like our own, men devoted to a cause, men of sordid motives; they bleed when the bayonets strike; they die from putrid wounds in stinking hospitals. These are the real men of the Revolution.

The historical novel is certainly a valuable asset to the teacher who seeks to interest the student in history. Its weakness lies in the fact that the student often finds in his story an isolated narrative, and fails to gain an overall picture of the scene, of which he sees only one phase. I have frequently found it necessary to give the larger historical background to a novel, and to ask for certain observations in order to get the student to see the contents of a novel as history. Otherwise it frequently remains a mere story in which setting, customs, and traditions are incidental. However, its use seems to me to be of unquestioned value, and for most students little guidance is necessary.

To give a clear picture of social conditions relative to travel and medicine, I might refer the student to the splendid "History of American Life" series, twelve volumes of well-written social history. But I've tried it, and found few students who enjoy an occasional chapter. I have yet to discover the student who was not thrilled by Van Wyck Mason's account of the voyage to Bermuda in *Three Harbors*. Here one finds as excellent a presentation of trade

and travel and medicine as he could gather from any formal history.

The motivation of the type described here is inherent in the course materials, and comes to the foreground as the teacher makes it operative. Though current events are themselves a part of history, they do serve, too, as a means for motivating the study of what we might, for convenience, term formal history. Some phases of the historical record are significant, but the difficulty of going into the intricacies of their development are such that the average student would rather "pass by on the other side." In such instances current events often furnish a solution to our problem.

Briefly, here is a sample of how we tried to make the subject of the electoral college and its operation, functional knowledge to our students. During the 1944 presidential campaign, we organized the home rooms of the school along the lines of state voters, who selected electors to the college. Voting was done by states (home rooms) at booths set up in a hallway, and the number of electors from each state was determined by the number of people in residence there (in the home room). When the record of the popular majority and the vote of the electoral college were compared, a clear picture of the whole system was in evidence. Before the school election took place, some explanation of its procedure was, of course, necessary, and after the election, questions arose again, concerning the strange loss of many popular votes, for which no proportionate electors appeared. It was not surprising, therefore, to watch the close interest with which the students followed the real election and reported to class how each state went in the electoral college. Current events came to our aid in motivating a difficult subject.

The discussion of current events topics usually furnishes an excellent opportunity to give historical background as an aid to understanding the affairs of the day. The question of confirming a new Secretary of Commerce offered an opportunity to study the confirming process: Does the Senate ever refuse to confirm nominations? Does it usually pry into the cases as carefully as it did into this one? These questions, and dozens of others, open wide the doors of interest and permit the past to

take its place as an intimate neighbor of the present. Our newspaper, *The American Observer*, serves us well in that capacity too. Frequently, it presents articles, with pictures, tracing the development of practices now in use, and thereby impresses again upon the mind of the student that history is not the musty record of a dead past but the story of the activities of men like ourselves. They lived, they toiled, they fought—here in history is the record of their achievements.

Movies as an aid in teaching are unquestionably of value in making places and events real to the student. They furnish drama; they lend color to the scenes of history; but their value is limited considerably by certain conditions. All too frequently the student looks upon movies as mere entertainment, so that an excellent film which skillfully portrays a subject like erosion, for example, loses its didactic value in the dramatic display of storm and flood attending the picture. I am doubtful whether the interest of the student in such a movie carries over to the subject generally.

I have found the use of pictures an excellent aid to motivation. During the past few years I have collected about ten thousand pictures, relating to the geography and history of Europe, from magazines like the *National Geographic*, *Life*, and others. Mere description can hardly rival the actual photograph of homes, costumes, implements of war, farming, ancient tombs, etc. These are the flesh and blood of history.

The interests of students vary widely, of course, and thus the classroom type of teaching requires a wide variety of motivation. The use of cartoons generally seems to "hit the spot." The humor frequently included in the picture, the caricature of some well known individual, and the skillful presentation of an idea help to create an interest in the subject. My own collection of several hundred cartoons has found wide circulation among the students, and I have had several young artists attempt drawings of their own.

The task of motivation in history seems to me to be as valuable as it is difficult; no question remains in my mind that it is a tremendously hard job. In motivating, we wish to have the student see the significance of the subject

matter in hand and its value as a basic training for interpreting the news of the day. We should like to have him see the whole realm of literature taking on a brighter form in the light of the vivid, living past: we should like to have each historic phrase bring a whole world of reminiscence associated with it. But these are long range goals, and students of high school age are not apt to see any further into the future than their lives have come through the past. The motivation of the type described here has come out of my long and happy association with the teaching of history, in which I have attempted to use every one of the processes mentioned. No illusions remain with me about whole classes that express pas-

sionate love for the subject. I have not envisioned inspirations in my students that would lead them through the weighty pages of Gibbon, or the musty, learned volumes of Ranke. But I have, I believe, made the past a living record, a significant account which will leave with the student at least an attitude of respect for the work and ideals of his forbears. And that, in my estimation, is the best type of motivation. Others may build on that work. Perhaps we may hope for respect for the past some day to grow into love, and for the reader of history to blossom into the creative artist, with the world and all of its cultural treasures as his theme.

The Double-Letter XYZ System — Written Work and Oral Discussion

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"You old stick-in-the-mud!" With those words the editor of the high school paper tried her best to convince the members of the sociology class that the Harvard scholarship winner and student-body president was selling out youth by his insistence that high school students should obey their parents.

The double-letter topic WW which was being discussed had the title of "Strict obedience to parents is the best policy." By the time the above reproach had unceremoniously interrupted the erudite male student, the word "strict" had been eliminated from consideration and the class was engrossed in determining at what age or stage youth was old or mature enough to make decisions independent of their parents' full approval. This discussion was not an accidental one in which the students idled away an hour by exchanging spontaneous banter. Rather, the discussion grew out of a written assignment made a few weeks earlier under the "double-letter system." The reasons for this system and an explanation of it are in order.

This particular sociology course was elective, attracting both superior college-bound students

and many others who merely needed a semester unit to fill out their programs. The textbook was barren of pictures, graphs, and suggested exercises. Neither the room nor the school library offered much in the way of supplementary materials. What was required therefore was some device to motivate the students who were taking the class to fill out their programs and to provide for the wide range of individual differences. The solution was the "double-letter, XYZ system."

Every two weeks the students were given a series of topics on which they were to write. They were to rely as much as possible on their past experience and learning—whether it was gained in or out of school—in writing on the topics. Their own reflections and ideas were to be worth most. By a given time each week at least three papers were to be turned in to the teacher. Enough topics were given the students so that they had some choice. If a student did not feel challenged or inspired by three of these topics he was free to write on a topic of his own if he thought it was appropriate to what the class was studying. Such a self-chosen topic was to be labeled "XYZ"—in

honor of the historical XYZ affair. The topics which had been suggested by the teacher were known as "double-letters." For example, the first topic was labeled AA, the second BB, and so on. This was largely for bookkeeping and quick reference purposes. Numbers could not be used because of the grading system.

The grading of the papers was not conventional and yet not radical. An average, uninspired paper received a grade of "3," a better paper "4," and papers breathing with originality or unusually fine thought were graded "5"—with no limit to the number of plus signs which could be appended if the student had done remarkable work. These plus signs were often used to encourage the average student who had done exceptional work when his ability was taken into consideration. Although the students knew that these plusses were not part of the "official" grade, they still cherished them and were pleased to find them on their papers. Grades of "1" and "2" were reserved for papers containing a few stereotyped ideas.

SOME SAMPLE DOUBLE-LETTERS

Most of the topics were assigned early enough so that they would be turned in before the class was ready to read in their texts and discuss in class the general areas of sociology to which the topics applied. This permitted the students to do independent thinking first and then to draw information from the text. At the same time class discussions were enlivened when an attempt was made to relate what they had written to the material found in the text and in supplementary sources. Some of the topics written about early in the course reveal how they are related to the growth of culture and the growing interdependence of man. Following are some of these topics:

- AA. Advantages and Disadvantages of Being a Hermit
- BB. How Society Made My Life More Complex
- CC. Advantages of Man Over Animals, and Vice Versa
- DD. After All, Men Are Still Brutes

When it came time for the class to consider the family the students had already written on such topics as these:

- EE. Things of Social Value My Family Taught Me

- FF. My Biggest Fears and How I Think I Got Them

- GG. Differences Between Farm and City Family Life.

- HH. What I Can Do to Make My Present Family Life Better

- II. Advantages (or Disadvantages) of Being a Bachelor (or Old Maid)

- JJ. The Ideal Prospective Wife

- KK. The Ideal Prospective Husband

- LL. What I Think Should Be Done to Reduce Divorce and Why

This group of topics resulted in a wealth of discussion material which brought to life and gave meaning to much of the content of the text which was considered dry. Every student in the class wrote something which was worth bringing into the class discussion for at least one of these topics. The same was true of topics dealing with the community which were simple and yet worthwhile. These four double-letters dealt with the home community:

- MM. What Are Ten of Home-Town's Best Features?

- NN. What Are Ten of Home-Town's Worst Features?

- OO. What Can Be Done to Improve Home-Town?

- PP. My Conception of an Ideal City

It was interesting to note the consternation of some students when they found a few of their best features considered worst features by other students. This disagreement led to a search for appropriate standards by which to judge a community. It also revealed that many students had overlooked many of the advantages and assets of the city which they might have enjoyed by making use of them. This was particularly true of recreational facilities. Disagreement as to the amount and quality of education provided brought about a study of what could be expected in a community of that size and with very limited financial resources.

DOUBLE-LETTERS LEAD TO PROJECTS

Growing out of the written double-letters were numerous interesting projects. Some of these projects were very simple. For example, a girl was given all the papers written by the boys on the topic, "The Ideal Prospective Wife." She compiled a list of traits which she

had both the boys and girls in the class rate as to relative importance. The results of this little survey were presented to the class and used as the basis for a discussion. A boy conducted a similar survey on the ideal husband.

One boy set out to take snapshots of the city's ten best and ten worst features as determined by compiling the suggestions from the double-letters dealing with those topics. Another tried to plan a re-zoning of the community, basing his work on the list of worst features as well as on what he found in reference books.

The boy who had been called a "stick-in-the-mud" planned and executed a survey of the sophomore class which became an annual project. He prepared a mimeographed questionnaire and administered it during the world history class periods. The results were compiled and presented in colored bar graphs showing the differences between sophomore boys and girls as to how they obtained and disposed of their spending money, what they did for recreation, and what kind of social activities they participated in or preferred.

One of the questions was, "Are your parents strict, moderate, or lenient?" The next question was, "Is their decision and action wise and justifiable always, usually, half the time, seldom, or never?" With the replies to these two questions tabulated, "Stick-in-the-mud" confronted the girl who had given him the reprobation regarding his views on strict obedience to parents. Without hesitation the girl pointed out that the answers were very appropriate for sophomores, but that juniors and seniors should be mature enough to expect more independence.

Interpretation of data was frequently necessary when the results of double-letters or the projects which grew out of them were compiled. For example, several sophomore girls indicated that they were permitted to stay out quite late at night, especially on weekends. Only one or two boys were allowed to stay out this late. The student who conducted the survey concluded that these girls either went with juniors or seniors or else with boys outside of school. With the exception of these girls, the others were in a little earlier than the boys. One of the interpretations of this was that it

took the boys a few extra minutes to get home after escorting the girls to their homes. The students enjoyed making such interpretations although they were warned not to take them seriously since there was no proof of validity or reliability of the data. The number of times that Protestant youth attended church services each month made a graph quite like the normal curve. The graph showing church attendance of Catholic youth was very different, with over half of them reporting that they attended church four times each month.

THE DOUBLE-LETTER SYSTEM IN HISTORY

Applying this device to American and world history is not quite so easy. However, over a period of several semesters a list of suitable topics can be developed. Many of them will follow the pattern of comparing the present with the past. Others will challenge the student to adopt the role of persons in an earlier time and place. Excerpts from speeches or documents of the Revolutionary and early National periods make suitable topics for writing and later discussion. This is one way to make the Bill of Rights alive and meaningful.

ESSENTIALS AND OUTCOMES

To many teachers the double-letter system may seem to be a device that is more bother than it is worth. For this reason it must be reiterated that such techniques must be adapted to local conditions and needs. When the essential features of the plan are analyzed it is easy to visualize the outcomes.

The most effective feature of the plan was probably its novelty. Teacher and students alike realized that they were to have at least a little variety from the usual social studies fare. The method was motivating because the topic challenged the students to think for themselves. Individual differences were provided for by providing extra topics so that not all students had to write on all the topics. If any student could not find appealing subjects among the topics he could write upon one of his own, as an XYZ project. Original thinking was constantly stressed, but not at the expense of soundness. The marking system eliminated the necessity for making small distinctions, yet permitted grading with a maximum of motivating value.

Increased insight was a definite outcome of the writing and discussion that occurred. The students gained insight into their own reasoning capacity and breadth or narrowness of experience by putting down their own ideas in black and white and later comparing them with what they found other students had written and with what was in the text and reference books. Many students appreciated the opportunity to read through a group of papers representing the ideas of all the members of the class on one topic.

This privilege proved motivating both to the readers and to the students who realized that the students as well as the teacher would get to read their written work. The teacher also gained insight into the students by reading their papers. In fact, many papers supplied the little clues which are often needed by the teacher to put together miscellaneous impressions and bits of information about a student so that he might be better understood. To insure as much spontaneity and freedom of expression as possible the students were told when the system was first inaugurated that

they might request to have any of their papers returned as soon as the teacher had read them if they considered that the contents were personal.

Finally, the system was sound because it was integrative. English composition served the social studies, while social studies topics motivated composition in such a way that the students were scarcely aware that they were in reality writing themes. This feature was preserved because the grading and comments on the papers did not lay stress on grammar and rhetoric. However, each paper received individualized appraisal. The writing of the editor of the school paper was expected to be clear and forceful. The student body president was expected to be consistent and logical in his thinking and not superficial in his attitudes. The plodding students were encouraged every time they showed a spark of originality or sound thinking. Throughout the course the double-letters were used to introduce subjects, to supplement textbook material, to develop both writing and oral discussion, and to lead to more extensive projects or surveys.

Free Enterprise

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PART I

The purpose of this Part is to explain what our system of free business enterprise or capitalism is, what it is supposed to do, and how and why it is supposed to do it.

For several centuries prior to the middle of the 1700's there had prevailed a business system known as mercantilism. Under this system the leading governments of the world had exercised monopoly rights over the production and sale of various commodities, they had participated in business through the ownership of stock in large trading companies, they had imposed protective tariffs on imports and to some extent had regulated wages and prices. After 1750 there began a movement away from this condition and a demand arose that government should leave business alone and neither regulate it nor participate in it in any way.

Thus began and was gradually developed a theory of business and enterprise which is variously called today, the classical or orthodox theory of economics, laissez-faire, free enterprise, or just plain capitalism. The Socialists, by the way, call it wage slavery.

In its purity this is one of the most beautiful theories ever devised by the mind of man. It is a fool-proof, self-regulating system in which the individual while doing the best thing for himself also does the best for society as a whole. Under it the functions of government are very simple. They consist only of providing for the national defense against an external enemy, of maintaining order within the country, and in setting up a system of courts wherein citizens can arbitrate their civil disputes. It is true that not all of the early writers

who developed this theory of free enterprise went so far in curtailing the powers of government, but many of them did, and as late as the 1890's we have a famous philosopher, Herbert Spencer, insisting that there be no public education, no public post-office, no public mint, no public sanitation, etc. He did not believe in protecting the weak and carried the idea of rugged individualism, the survival of the fittest, to its extreme limits.

In our recent experience we have had three principal forms of government under which business operates. They are capitalism, socialism, and fascism, represented respectively by the United States, Russia, and Germany. In this country we have the private ownership of property, in Russia the government owns and operates all business property (but not personal property), and Hitler, while preserving the fiction of private ownership, had complete control over all business. He dictated what and how many goods to produce, he set wages and prices and said how the profits should be disposed of. They might be invested in certain designated industries, they might go as income taxes into the coffers of the State, or they might go as donations to the Nazi Party.

Now the object of all business activity is the satisfaction of human wants and these wants are satisfied by the consumption of goods and services. To simplify we will use the word goods to mean both goods and services. It then follows that the greatest satisfaction can be obtained by the production and consumption of the greatest amount of goods, and it is fairly obvious that the most goods will be produced when everyone able and willing to work has as good a job as he is able to fill. It is therefore the purpose of the business system to maintain conditions under which the fullest employment possible will prevail. But this is not all of it. Goods are produced by human labor working upon raw materials through the instrumentalities of machinery and power. And the business system that encourages the greatest production of goods must also encourage the building of machinery and the discovery and development of natural resources. The claim made for capitalism is that it does this

and what we wish to understand is how it operates to accomplish its purpose.

Someone has said that any sound theory of economics must be based upon a correct observation of human behavior—the customs and characteristics of people. The writers who formulated the classical theory of free enterprise worked upon this principle and arrived at the following conclusions which were assumed to be true and were the foundation of their belief:

First, their idea of "economic man." All men were supposed to act in such a way as to obtain the most goods for the least effort. They were not only selfish and ruthless in pursuit of their own advantage but they knew the real value of all goods offered for sale and never paid more for anything than it could be obtained for in a competitive market. "Economic man not only always wanted to act according to his best economic interests but always knew how to do so." It has been said that Adam Smith, who has been called the father of free enterprise, and who was a Scotsman himself, believed that all men had at least some Scotch blood in them.

The second assumption was that human wants are insatiable—that all people have at all times an unsatisfied desire for goods.

Thirdly, the belief that the freedom of business from government interference would result in full and free competition. Such competition was defined as the presence in the market of so many buyers and sellers (producers) that the action of no one of them could appreciably affect the amount of any commodity produced nor the price of it. Free competition would also ensure the free and easy entrance of any person into any occupation or industry. Such ease of entrance would require the complete freedom of movement of labor and money from place to place and from one occupation into another and this freedom and willingness to move or mobility was assumed.

Another result of free competition would be completely flexible prices. The price of all things would in effect be established by bidding for them in open markets and would be determined by the interaction of supply and demand. The law of supply and demand is that as supply increases the price falls and as de-

mand increases the price rises or it may be stated the other way, if the price goes up the supply also goes up but the demand goes down.

But the most important of all the observations made upon human behavior was in respect to what people do with the money they earn. David Ricardo, who might be called the godfather of Adam Smith's famous offspring, the capitalistic theory, held that: "Give men but the means of purchasing and their wants are insatiable." He also held that no one would accumulate money except with a view toward making the accumulation productive, i.e., paying interest or yielding a profit. No one would save for a rainy day or old age. This, as can be readily seen, means that all income will be re-spent very soon—either spent upon one's living or saved and invested. This point is very important. It is equivalent to saying that there is no demand for money except as something to buy something with. The idea that any one would hold money in idleness or hoard it had absolutely no place in their philosophy. It was unthinkable. And, as human wants were insatiable, any saving that was done was accomplished by denying oneself certain present satisfactions in the hope of obtaining a larger income in the future.

The process of saving and investing is the heart of the capitalistic system. Capital goods are those goods which are used in the production of other goods and are mostly machinery and buildings. The more machinery men have to work with the more goods they can produce and the better off we all are economically. Economic progress or advancement consists almost wholly in adding to the quantity or quality of our machinery. And this comes from saving and investing. As we abstain from satisfying our present wants by not buying some consumer goods that we would like to have, and divert a part of our income to the creation of additional machinery, we increase our ability to turn out these consumer goods and can therefore enjoy more of them in the future. Saving was held to be among the greatest of all virtues, not only by Benjamin Franklin, as we all know, but also by the classical exponents of free enterprise. The extent to which machinery is now used is indicated by the fact that in some of our most modern factories as much

as \$16,000 worth of machinery has been installed for each workman. The United States in 1945 was believed to employ about four times as much machinery per man as Russia.

As his insatiable desire for goods and his opportunity to enter freely into any industry would not only incite but also allow every man who was able and willing to work to do so, the system would provide the full employment of labor, and the fact that all income would immediately be re-spent would ensure the continuance of such full employment. This is because, for the country as a whole, income and expense are equal. As goods are produced enough money is paid out in wages, rent, interest and profit to buy the goods. If the money is so spent it goes back to the producers, who can at once turn out an equal quantity of goods; the process can be kept up forever. All income will almost immediately be spent for consumer goods or saved and invested. If the opportunities for investment are great, business men will offer a high rate of interest and more money will be saved. If opportunities for investment decrease, businessmen will offer a lower rate of interest, less money will be saved, and of course more money will be spent for consumer goods. The amount of money saved would in this way be governed by the rate of interest—the higher the rate the more would be saved and all money saved would be invested—interest would be the reward for abstinence and saving and there would never be any idle money. As there could never (in the foreseeable future) be too much machinery to help human labor in producing goods, and as there could never be too many goods because human wants are insatiable, it follows that there could never be too much saving.

But why should businessmen be willing to pay interest for the use of money savings? Because by taking a chance in prospecting for and finding some new source of raw material—by drilling an oil well which may turn out to be a gusher—by being the first to make some new article for which there may be an enormous demand—or by being a better manager than their competitors in any business—they may be able to sell their product for more than it cost them and thus make a profit. Capitalism is therefore a profit system. Profit is held to

be the reward for taking a risk or for efficiency in management. It is also held that the hope of making a monetary profit is the only incentive which will impel people to any form of endeavor, and the greater the profit the greater will be our productivity. This is another of the observations of human behavior made in behalf of the system of free enterprise.

This also explains the necessity for saving. People employed in the discovery and development of raw materials and those employed in building industrial plants are not producing consumer goods while thus engaged. They must, however, live and the remainder of the people must abstain from using their full share of consumer goods (which they alone have produced) in order to divide with the others. The act of not consuming a part of what you have produced is the act of saving. The people of the United States have during the past 150 years used about five per cent of their labor force in plant expansion and building new plants.

It has now been shown that human habits and characteristics being as assumed, a policy of non-interference in business affairs by government will result in the greatest production of goods by providing full employment for labor and encouraging the accumulation of capital goods and the development of capital resources. This is the consummation that is so devoutly to be wished.

The following is a summary of the conditions and assumptions upon which the orthodox theory of free enterprise is based.

1. By definition—no interference with, nor participation in, business by government.
2. The concept of "economic man"—all men were considered to be economic men, men who were competent judges of value and who would buy only at the lowest price and sell at the highest price obtainable in an auction market.
3. Full and free competition—free and easy entrance into all occupations and industries—prices determined by numerous bidders.
4. Free trade—assured by the policy of non-interference by government.
5. Complete flexibility of prices—brought about by the free working of the law of supply and demand.
6. Complete mobility of capital and labor from place to place and from industry to industry.
7. Human wants are insatiable.
8. Amount of saving determined by the rate of interest—the higher the rate the more saving. Saving requires abstinence.
9. The prompt investment of all savings which assures the prompt spending of all income. This follows from No. 8.

PART II

We will now inquire into how well this system has fulfilled its promises, and, if it has fallen short, try to determine the reason and suggest a possible improvement.

The history of the United States from the beginning of its constitutional government in 1789 has not been a history of full employment. It has been a succession of booms and depressions culminating in the Depression starting in 1929 in which for a time the national income expressed in dollars was cut in two, one third of the labor force (some 15,000,000 people) were out of a job and the physical production of goods was also reduced by one third.

Business activity for most of this period of 150 years has been plotted by statisticians; the charts show that this activity on the average has been about 90 per cent of what it would have been had business been as good at all times as it was at the best times. At no time except for a few years during our wars have we attained the peak of full employment. Depressions have therefore cost us 10 per cent of what we might have done. Ten per cent does not seem enough to be seriously alarmed about, but it does not tell the whole story. The operation of the system of free enterprise is supposed to distribute the things that enter into production—labor, machinery, and raw materials—in such a way that they will be used in the most efficient manner and for the production of those things that people want the most. It was held that this would be done, because in a freely competitive market the most efficient producers could afford to pay the highest price for these factors of production and would therefore get them. And the production of goods would be guided by the demand of consumers for them.

About the middle of the 1930's the Brookings Institute in Washington, D. C. made a study of business operations for the year 1929, which was the most prosperous peace year we had ever had up to that time. Its conclusion was that with the same man-power, equipment and methods that we had at that time, the country could have produced a volume of goods 25 per cent greater than we actually turned out. And it attributed the failure to produce more to the fact that labor, etc., was not used to the best advantage—free enterprise had not distributed the factors of production properly. If that were true in 1929, it is reasonable to suppose that it was equally true at the top of all boom periods that we have had. Add this 25 per cent to the 10 per cent loss due to depressions and it seems fair to say that our business system has operated throughout our history at about 65 per cent of full efficiency.

This is a conservative estimate for the future as depressions have been getting deeper and lasting longer. The maximum deviation in past depressions has been as follows, 1873—15 per cent below normal, 1893—20 per cent, 1920—25 per cent, and 1929—35 per cent. And some investigators other than the Brookings people estimated the inefficiency of 1929 as much greater than 25 per cent. This is sufficiently serious to bring an indictment against free enterprise as it has operated in this country and to raise the question as to whether or not we could have done better.

It is quite true that the people of the United States enjoy the highest standard of living in the world. Saying that our system is only 65 per cent efficient does not necessarily condemn it as a bad system. It may still be the best possible system. But we are justified in wondering why the orthodox theory that seemed so logical has fallen so far short of its promise. We are not looking for perfection but only to see if some improvement can be made.

All theories are based upon certain assumptions which are supposed to be true—these assumptions are the result of things we see around us and are held to be self-evident. Strange as it may seem, if we closely examine the nine assumptions given at the close of Part I of this article we will find every one of them to be false.

It is needless to say that we have never had completely free enterprise—complete freedom from government interference with business. Our first Congress imposed a tariff on imports. It was small at first but gradually increased through the years. The Smoot-Hawley Act of 1930 levied a tax of well over 50 per cent of the value of goods coming in from foreign countries. A tariff does not prevent competition among our own domestic producers but it does protect them from the competition of foreign producers and encourages our own people to produce goods which can be produced to better advantage in other countries or less advantageously in this country. It therefore diverts the factors of production—labor, machinery and raw materials—into industries in which they will be used less efficiently than they would be in others. It thus defeats one of the purposes of free enterprise.

A thing often forgotten in the discussions of protective tariffs is that all goods coming into this country from the outside must be paid for by goods which we ourselves produce. The more goods come in the greater must be our own production of other goods with which to pay for them. Imports must be balanced by exports and importation does not reduce our own production; it merely changes the pattern. It must be remembered that foreign trade is trade.

In the summer of 1946 a strike took place in a certain automobile factory. The men, who had been working on cars built with a right hand drive, complained that cars were being exported to foreign countries while they themselves could not get all the cars they wanted. The management explained that certain raw materials used in the manufacture of the cars had to be imported and that these imports had to be paid for by exports.

It is a general rule that all trade in order to be continuous must be beneficial to both parties. In case of complete world free trade the United States would not participate in any trade that was not beneficial to it.

The best argument for protective tariffs is that we have them. Businesses have been built up under their legal protection and these businesses should not be destroyed by an abrupt removal of that protection. Tariffs should be

reduced gradually. Whether high protective tariffs are good or bad for the country has long been a very controversial question, but good or bad they are certainly no part of a policy which maintains that there should be no interference with business by government.

It is a curious condition that the greatest advocates of free enterprise in this country have also been the greatest advocates of high protective tariffs. Their attitude seems to have been that we should produce more goods in the United States than the mass of the people could buy with the wages that are paid to them and that the surplus goods (still belonging to the owners of industry) should be sold abroad in exchange for gold. The balance of trade is held to be the most favorable when the most goods go out and the most gold comes in. This is a hangover from mercantilism, which held that the only true wealth consisted of precious metals. It might be asked, of what good is the gold after we get it? The United States now has two thirds of the world's supply of gold and it is buried in a hole in the ground in Kentucky.

But the enactment of a tariff bill was just the beginning of government regulation of and participation in business. Ever since 1789 there has been a steady trend in that direction. Nor has this been true only in our country and in our time. "The continual expansion of public wants has been one of the outstanding phenomena of history." It is apparent not only in government at the national level but also at the strictly local level. The city of New York now spends about twenty times as much every year as did the Roman Empire at the height of its grandeur.

Not to mention public education, the post-office, the mint and various laws safeguarding the public health, the government has interfered in transportation, communications, electric power and other utilities, banking, wages, hours of labor and in many other ways. And it has used its power of taxation for purposes other than just for raising necessary revenue. One way to measure the activities of the government is to note the percentage of the national income that it takes in taxes. Even in peace-time they have been as high as 25 per cent.

But let no one think that these laws have been passed at the mere whim of our legislators nor because of their desire to exercise power. They have been the result of loud and continuous clamor on the part of the general public for the correction of abuses. While most of these laws were denounced by people opposed to them as rank socialism when first proposed, very few of them have ever been repealed. Prohibition is the outstanding exception. Congress does at times enact a law and then refuse to appropriate enough money for its enforcement.

Our present banking laws may not be perfect, but how would we like to return to the pre-Civil War days of wildcat banking when a man might have folding money in his pocket without knowing what it was worth? He might have five-dollar bills issued by banks in Massachusetts, Alabama, or Michigan, but to determine their value he would have to take them to a banker who would look in a book to get the current quotation. Even the banker would be taking chances because the values changed from day to day.

Or would we like to return to the time when a big oil man could compel a railroad to charge his competitors twenty-five cents a barrel more than it charged him for shipping oil and then make it turn over the twenty-five cents to him? Or when the railroads could charge our farmers so much for handling their crops that the best the farmers could do was to scratch out a subsistence living?

Again, would we like to have our cities cluttered up with competing telephone lines? If there were only two, each customer would need to have two phones or be able to call up only half of his neighbors.

Would you like to have all radio stations determine their own wave length and every car driver make his own traffic rules?

Is it any wonder that we are changing our ideas about what free enterprise is? As civilization becomes more complex the necessary activities of government multiply. Under a democratic form of government the line will be drawn in accord with public opinion and it is not changing our form of government to give our government more power if the people wish to do so. If we really have a government of, by, for the people why be afraid of it? If we do

not have such a government why not make it that way?

Government is a device which can be used by society for its own benefit just as powerful and highly complicated machinery can be used for the same purpose. If circumstances are such that we must use our government to regulate our economic life then our outstanding problem is how to make our government honest and efficient. We are coming to believe that free enterprise can flourish only under the watchful eye and with the help and protection of government. One of the most distinguished of American economists, John Bates Clark, wrote as far back as 1914, "Everyone knows that we must invoke the aid of the state to make industry what it should be."

If the classical idea of "economic man" were true we would all be high-class purchasing agents, capable of filling highly-paid positions with great industrial corporations. Let each one of us ask himself if this is the case. A quotation from Professor Schumpeter of Harvard is to the point, "Consumers—their wants are nothing like as definite and their actions upon these wants nothing like as rational and prompt as classical theory implies."

Free competition has never existed and never can exist. It was assumed that the working man was free to work or not as the wages offered by employers were or were not satisfactory. This is manifestly untrue, as the workman and his family can starve to death in 30 days if without funds, whereas the employer with some wealth to support him can always outwait the employee.

At the present time our giant corporations are to a great extent monopolistic. While written agreements do not exist among them, in those industries dominated by a few large companies the leader sets the price and the others follow. While we have little pure monopoly we have a great deal of imperfect competition.

Our public utilities are natural monopolies. Two water supply systems or two electric power distribution systems in a city would be absurd. Yet we could not submit to the dictation of just one company. Such enterprises are and must be either publicly owned or strictly regulated. If laboring men were organized into one big union and always acted

together they would have the most powerful monopoly of all.

Monopoly is the direct opposite of free competition. A monopolistic position is of the greatest advantage in business and it almost goes without saying that businessmen do not want much competition in spite of the supposed popularity of the idea of free enterprise. The NRA codes drawn up by the businessmen of each industry contained a clause limiting the amount of investment to be allowed in their own industry. They were all glad to see plenty of competition in every industry except their own. Unions demand the closed shop and place restrictions on apprenticeship. Professional men make it not too easy to enter their various callings. And how could all these people act otherwise if they are "economic men"?

Thomas Jefferson and the other founding fathers never dreamed of billion dollar corporations employing hundreds of thousands of men, yet mass production has reduced the cost of manufacture many times over and we would not think of going back to the more inefficient methods. The huge size of our industrial plants has destroyed the definition of competition as laid down by the orthodox theory of free enterprise. Adam Smith possibly never saw a steam engine. Yet the businessmen of today, the very men who have brought about these vast industrial changes, still preach his political ideas. Is politics something like religion—the absolute truth discovered ages ago and not subject to change? Capitalism has been called "The Creator" by one of its devotees. It seems to have a religious tinge to it.

If all prices—commodity prices, wages, which are the price of labor, rent, which is the price for the use of land, and interest, which is the price paid for the use of money—went up and down together it would make little difference whether we had a high or a low general level of prices and we could still do business.

The orthodox theory assumed that all prices would be determined by competition only and would be completely flexible, responding quickly to the varying conditions of supply and demand. The law of supply and demand works smoothly only where pure competition prevails and, as will be shown later, when money is not hoarded. It is often difficult to persuade people

that we do not have pure competition in this country. We come nearer to it in farming and retail trade. In the great fields of mining, manufacturing, public utilities, transportation, and communications we do not have anything like the numerous small businesses which, by orthodox definition, comprise a system of pure competition.

In the spring of 1946 Senator Murray made the following statement: "Prices are no longer controlled primarily by competition—they are controlled increasingly by the handful of monopoly interests which dominate almost every branch of our economy." The Temporary National Economic Committee found that in fifteen important industries at least 75 per cent of the entire output was controlled by not more than four firms.

Our experience with transitions from booms to depressions and back to booms again shows that prices are by no means completely flexible.

Some prices vary a great deal and others are very sticky. Some prices are governed by contracts such as labor agreements which run for a year, and interest on loans and bonds which may run for a few months or for a hundred years. The wages of government employees do not change rapidly. Leases on real estate often run for many years. Commodity prices in those industries which are highly competitive, such as agriculture, change quickly and widely. But those in the monopolistic industries change little. The price of public utility services regulated by government are slow to respond to changes in the general business situation. As an example, the cast-iron pipe industry which is mostly controlled by a few large firms, from 1929 to 1932, cut wholesale prices by 7 per cent and payrolls by 74 per cent while the more competitive silk and rayon industry cut wholesale prices 61 per cent and pay rolls by 55 per cent in the same period. This shows that if prices respond to general conditions employment can be more nearly maintained. There was no unemployment in agriculture but the prices of many farm

products in 1932 were less than one quarter of what they had been in 1929. In 1933 the state of Arkansas alone was holding 12,000,000 acres of land taken over for non-payment of taxes.

When it comes to the mobility of labor and capital, our theorists were once more wrong in their observations of human behavior. Labor is not perfectly mobile because of difference in race, religion, language, customs, climate, landscape and inertia. It is a commonplace that some people prefer to live in poverty rather than change either their location or occupation. This is true in spite of the fact that many Okies and Arkies loaded their household goods onto their jalopies and went to California. During the war the government never got as many people as it wanted into the war plants, although it offered what many people thought were unreasonably high wages. People did not want to leave their homes and assured positions to live in temporary camps and do unfamiliar work, even though their wages in their old jobs were not raised and they were squeezed between high income taxes and the rising cost of living.

And capital when once invested in one industry cannot easily be shifted to another industry. Machines used for weaving cloth cannot be used for rolling steel.

The observation that human wants are insatiable is true only up to a certain point. Taken as a whole the world has not yet been able to produce as much as all consumers would use if they had the money to pay for it. But some people have larger incomes than they care to spend on their living. While perhaps 75 per cent of our families habitually spend their entire income upon their present needs, some of our wealthiest people spend not more than 1 per cent or 2 per cent of their annual incomes for consumer goods. In this connection it is well to remember that one human want is leisure.

*(To be concluded in the March issue of
THE SOCIAL STUDIES)*

America—a Cultural Democracy?

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Countless numbers of immigrants have, beginning as early as the 1800's, flowed into America, the "melting pot" of the world. These minority groups came from all walks of life for political or economic reasons, but each with a well-defined cultural heritage.

The influx of immigrants during the period from World War I to the present time has continued, although the stream has considerably narrowed, but the type of immigrant has changed. If we consider the Poles, for example, we see not peasant immigrants but mostly members of the middle and upper classes, among them, famous artists, scientists, and teachers.¹ An examination of this particular period of Polish immigration gives great hope that America is becoming a cultural democracy as well as a political one. Confirmation of this statement lies in our examination and application of the true meaning of a cultural democracy in relation to America and the Poles. A cultural democracy is a state wherein the majority group gives freedom to a minority group to perpetuate its own cultural heritage, and in return, the minority group willingly shares elements of its own culture with the majority.

Before we apply the characteristics of a cultural democracy in relation to America and the Poles, we must take cognizance of the fact that the American attitude towards "foreigners" was in past times often somewhat hostile. Heretofore, Americans expected too much of the Poles regarding assimilation. There were many proponents of the "Americanization theory" of assimilation which states that the immigrant should divest himself of his heritage immediately and adopt a standardized pattern of life.² Constantine Panunzio has well expressed this attitude:

Assimilation, as the word itself denotes, aims to make the foreign-born similar to

Americans in language, dress, customs, religion, and what not. It lays stress upon formal Americanization through naturalization. It insists that all immigrants must at all times use English, and must put away their native customs, ideas, and ideals as soon as possible. In other words, assimilation tends to be standardization.³

This idea is preposterous and most realistic Americans have abolished it. The wiser concept of assimilation is advanced by Kimball Young in the "sociological theory." He does not expect an immigrant to divest himself of all his heritage and allow himself to be completely permeated with Americanism. He states:

We may define assimilation as an interactional process by which persons and groups achieve the memories, sentiments, ideas, attitudes, and habits of other groups and by sharing their experience become incorporated with them in a common cultural life of the nation.⁴

Americans have judiciously accepted this theory and from this acquiescence appears the first characteristic of a cultural democracy. Americans, as the majority group, have given freedom to the Poles, the minority group, to preserve their cultural heritage and this can be proved by virtue of the fact that Poles have retained their cultural pattern within the American civilization to an unusual degree. There are several reasons for this retainment. The Poles are a strongly nationalistic people and, even though they are permanent and loyal residents of this country, they hold fond memories of their homeland. Since the Poles are predominantly of the Catholic faith, the Roman Catholic Church has great strength among them.

The Polish Church has encouraged education among the members of its congregation to a noticeable degree. The majority of Poles sup-

¹ G. Saenger, *Today's Refugees, Tomorrow's Citizens*, pp. 7-8.

² W. C. Smith, *Americans in the Making*, p. 115.

³ C. M. Panunzio, *Immigrant Crossroads*, p. 254.

⁴ K. Young, *An Introductory Sociology*, p. 495.

port their own institutions whether they be social, educational, or religious. Finally, the activities of the various organizations cannot be overlooked.⁵ Some of the principal organizations are the Polish Institute of Arts and Sciences in America, and the Polish Roman Catholic Union Archives and Museum whose purpose is "to collect and preserve all that pertains to the history of the Poles in the U. S. of America." Few other minority groups gather such scientific archival material.⁶ The Kosciuszko Foundation was created in 1925 and its policy is to promote cultural and intellectual relationships between Poland and America.⁷

On the whole, Americans do not begrudge this preservation of the Polish cultural heritage, because they have recognized its true worth. One must admit that the peasant class in America made no definite cultural contributions to America other than helping to build an industrial and agricultural America through sweat and Titanic work. In recent times, however, famous Polish immigrants have made notable contributions in the fields of arts and sciences, and this concrete evidence of the Polish heritage could not be overlooked by the open-minded Americans. In regard to this, Gerhart Saenger makes this statement:

The world's most famous artists, scientists, and teachers have assembled in America, and still more are to come. Some of them are already working for the benefit of their new homeland; others will soon make their contribution as well. It may not be an exaggeration to claim that, as a result of the war and of the recent immigration, America has already become the cultural center of the world.⁸

From the recognition of Polish cultural contributions there follows an appreciation. Americans have realized what benefits the future American generations can derive from the presence of these immigrants here. Saenger writes:

One may be certain that the greatest as-

sembly of artists in one country to have occurred in recent times will also leave its trace in American life. Whether through direct teaching or by mere personal contact, America's younger generation cannot but profit from this group of refugees.⁹

The second characteristic of a cultural democracy is a willingness of the minority group to share its cultural heritage with the majority group. The Poles have shared their cultural heritage with the Americans without stint and with good faith. The major contributions during the period from World War I to the present time have been made principally in the field of arts and sciences.

First, the field of arts may be divided into branches of painting, woodcarving, iron handicraft, music, drama, and literature. W. T. Benda is believed to be one of the greatest authorities in the world on mask-making. He is also famous for his decorative painting, and illustrations for books and magazines. The line, color, and texture characteristic of his work is said to be distinctly original.¹⁰ Other painters are G. Gwozdecki, Leon Makielski, Mrs. K. Kosicka, Tade Styka, and Joseph Sigall.¹¹

In woodcarving, Adam Dabrowski is conducting a school in Brooklyn. He carves anything from peasant animal toys to wild flowers of his homeland with the same colorful imagination.¹² Iron handicraft boasts of the contribution of Samuel Yellin, famous for his beautiful work ranging from heavy iron gates to escutcheons for the keyholes of jewel boxes. Examples of his work may be found in (1) the iron gates to Pennsylvania Railroad Company yards in Philadelphia; (2) the gates of the Harkness Memorial Tower at Yale University; (3) the doors of Bok Singing Tower at Lake Wales, Florida; and (4) the ironwork in the chapel at Valley Forge and in the National Cathedral at Washington, D. C.¹³

In music the Poles are proud of the opera singers Adam Didur and Ina Burskaya. The Polish tenor Jan Kiepura appeared in 1935

⁵ F. G. Brown and J. S. Roucek, *One America*, p. 142.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 626.

⁷ M. R. Davie, "Immigrants from Axis-Conquered Countries," *Annals of the American Academy of Political Science*, 223 (September, 1942), 119.

⁸ G. Saenger, *Today's Refugees, Tomorrow's Citizens*, p. 277.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 262.

¹⁰ A. H. Eaton, *Immigrant Gifts to American Life*, p. 141.

¹¹ J. S. Roucek, *Poles in America*, p. 33.

¹² A. H. Eaton, *Immigrant Gifts to American Life*, p. 145.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 146.

opposite Gladys Swarthout in "Give Us This Night" (Paramount Film), and starred in "The Merry Widow" on Broadway in 1943-1944.¹⁴ The Poles have such symphony conductors as Dr. Arthur Rodzinski, conductor of the N. Y. Philharmonic Symphony, and Leopold Stokowski who is engaged in an experiment to spread a greater knowledge and appreciation of music to the masses.¹⁵ André Kostelanetz (Kasztelaniec) is a well-known and greatly appreciated conductor in America.¹⁶ Among the ranks of pianists need we mention the famed genius Paderewski who thrilled American audiences with his music? The pianists Jozef Hofman and Artur Rubinstein have won great acclaim from American music lovers. Wanda Landowska is indisputably the greatest living harpsichordist.¹⁷

In drama, Paul Muni's performance in "A Song to Remember," portraying the life of Chopin, is unforgettable. Richard Boleslawski just completed directing "The Garden of Allah" in Hollywood when he died (1942).¹⁸ In literature, we have Oscar Halecki, one of Europe's greatest historians, Jan Karski, author of *The Story of the Secret State*, and Zofia Kossak, who wrote *Blessed Are the Meek*. Both books were Book-of-the-Month Club selections.

Second, in the field of science Polish immigrants have contributed to American engineering, chemistry, psychology, and anthropology. In engineering there is Dr. Ralph Modjeski who designed or was consultant for the Manhattan Bridge over the East River, New York, and the Mid-Hudson Bridge at Poughkeepsie, New York. Professor F. Pawlowski, head of the Department of Aeronautical Engineering at the University of Michigan, is considered a pioneer in aeronautical education.¹⁹ The chemist Dr. Casimir Funk, original discoverer of vitamins, is carrying on research in cancer and also pharmaceutical chemistry dealing with new medicines.²⁰ Wojciech Swietoslowski re-

cently re-issued his book, *Ebulliometric Measurements*.

A contributor to psychology is Professor Zygmunt A. Piotrowski, associate in Columbia University's College of Physicians and Surgeons, member of leading psychological associations in America, and an associate editor of *The Psychiatric Quarterly* and *Rorschach Research Exchange*. He has written many scientific articles and has conducted numerous research projects alone or in collaboration.²¹

The above recitation of names and corresponding contributions is by no means complete. It suffices, however, to give us concrete proof that the Poles have shared their culture with America. On the other hand, the Americans have reciprocated by their recognition and appreciation of these efforts. No longer need the Pole be ashamed that he is a Pole. His contributions are being incorporated into the vast reservoir of American culture. He is accepted in America—an America which truly is developing into a cultural democracy.

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¹⁴ F. J. Brown and J. S. Roucek, *One America*, p. 143.

¹⁵ J. S. Roucek, *Poles in America*, p. 33.

¹⁶ W. Seabrook, *These Foreigners*, p. 276.

¹⁷ S. P. Mizwa, "Polish-American Cultural Relations," *Poland*, Ed. by B. Schmitt, p. 357.

¹⁸ W. Seabrook, *These Foreigners*, p. 276.

¹⁹ J. S. Roucek, *Poles in America*, pp. 34-35.

²⁰ J. Tepa, "The Discoverer of Vitamins," *The Polish Review*, 5 (January, 1945), 6, 15.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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"Our Monroe Doctrine." A two-reel sound film. The film gives the reasons for the issuance of the doctrine and sets forth the part played by the South American Republics in

influencing the policy of the United States. Write to Academic Film Company, Inc., R.K.O. Building, Radio City, New York, N. Y.

"This is China." A three-reel sound film depicting the different occupations of Chinese, life on river-boats, on the cold, bleak Mongolian plains, and in dirty, over-crowded cities. Write to Manse Film Library, 1521 Dana Avenue, Cincinnati, Ohio.

"A Heritage We Guard." A three-reel sound film. This 16 mm. sound film traces the early exploitation of wild life for hides and skins, the gradual westward movement of trappers and settlers, and the thoughtless exploitation of land for ever-increasing crops. The resulting de-induration, soil erosion, and disastrous dust storms are pictured. The film shows the interrelation of wild life and soil conservation, and the steps taken to restore and conserve our ever-dwindling natural resources. Write to Motion Pictures Extension Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. *Catalogs* are available from Director of Visual Education, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C., containing a list of films (16 mm., 35 mm.), and how obtainable.

The March of Time Forum Edition Films, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., present a vigorous film treatment of current affairs. For each film, the editors have prepared a special "Discussions Outline" containing a synopsis of the script, introductory questions, study questions, and bibliography. Twenty-six outstanding 16 mm. films for study and discussion are available on:

The Philippine Republic	Men of Medicine
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Americans All	Airways of the Future
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Italy	Texas
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Life With Baby	Portugal
Nation's Capital	Canada
Ireland	Brazil
China	New England
Russia at War	French Campaigns

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

AMERICANISM THROUGH HISTORY

It has long been a subject of interest among teachers and laymen as to whether the teaching of American history contributes to attitudes of good citizenship. It is naturally not an easy question to answer since it involves such correlative points as the kind of teaching, the subject matter to be stressed, and an interpretation of the meaning of good citizenship. What appears to be an attitude of good citizenship to one person may seem to be Bourbon reactionism to another, or conversely, it may seem dangerously radical.

However, it is reasonable to ask whether by improving the techniques of teaching history we can stimulate pupils to think more critically on social questions and to practice in their own lives more democratic procedures. It is beside the point to query whether these are legitimate outcomes of the study of history in general. In the modern public school they are desirable and necessary objectives for any academic subject. The day is past when we can afford to present any field of learning below the college level purely for its intellectual interest and cultural value.

The problem, then, of whether American history can be utilized as a means of improving democratic processes is a proper one for continued experimentation. Among the many studies that have been made is that reported on in the October number of *The High School Journal*. Under the direction of Professor C. C. Peters, an experiment was conducted involving the use of ten experimental groups and eighteen control groups in Florida and Pennsylvania. It was proposed to determine the extent to which American history could be successfully taught to these three ends: (1) an improved understanding of how the present institutions of society came to exist; (2) an ability to evaluate critically the chief problems now pertaining to these institutions and a realization of the need to solve these problems; and (3) democracy as a pattern of behavior as well as a state of mind or belief.

While the teachers of the control groups taught "as they were accustomed to teaching," they varied their procedures in teaching the experimental groups. With the latter, the subject matter was presented in vertical rather than chronological units, and the approach was taken from the modern scene, searching for the historical explanation of what was familiar. Considerable time was used at the conclusion of each unit in discussing problems that remained to be solved and what citizens could do to aid in their solution. Pupils took part in planning the work of the class and together with the teachers made a point of practicing good democratic habits in their mutual relationships.

At the conclusion of the year's work, five types of measurements were made. To determine whether the experimental groups had deviated to any extent from the control groups in their mastery of formal subject matter, the Cooperative American History Test was given. The results showed no significant difference in academic mastery between the two groups. A test was also devised for the purpose of indicating the ability to interpret history, especially in relation to the present. On this test the experimental groups showed definitely superior results, although of course the validity of any test of this kind, no matter how carefully constructed, is open to argument.

A third test required pupils to identify civic problems needing solution and action. From a list of twenty-seven such problems, the pupils were asked to check the ten they were most anxious to see solved. The list included problems of both major and minor importance. Results showed that the experimental pupils checked the ten fundamental problems to a much greater extent than did the control pupils, thus indicating an increased ability to identify real issues, and possibly an actual sense of civic responsibility toward them. The fourth test was one of democratic relationships in the classroom, based on a series of observa-

tions and ratings made by visitors. Of 230 comparisons made, 201 were in favor of the experimental groups. The fifth test was the Purdue Attitude Scale for liking the subject. Here, also, the experimental groups were definitely ahead, finding the study of history more inviting.

Granting that many factors can enter into such a project that cannot be measured and that the results cannot therefore be conclusive, such experiments are of real value and should give encouragement to those who believe that better teaching and teaching methods in the social studies will pay dividends in better citizenship.

HOW WILL THE WAR AFFECT OUR SCHOOLS?

It is a fascinating type of speculation to wonder what effect the war will eventually make on our educational system and practices. It is almost unthinkable that there should be no major changes. Over ten million young people have undergone an extremely important educational experiment whose permanent effects are only just beginning to be evident. In a few years these G. I.'s will be the dominant generation, making and administering the laws for schools as well as the rest of society. Through their service experience and the example of the G. I. Bill, most of them are acutely conscious of the value of education. Is it not to be expected that this consciousness will be reflected in their future actions towards schools?

Russell V. Burkhard, a schoolman and veteran, offered in the November issue of *The Clearing House* a set of predictions of what he thinks will be the changes we can look for in the not-too-distant future. One is the twelve-month educational program, doing away with the present wasted summer months. He thinks that the principle of the summer camp will be used in some way to make school programs operate continuously. He predicts also that better-trained and better-paid teachers will be demanded by G. I. parents. They are in an excellent position to see the difference between good and bad leadership and instruction and to know the harm the latter can do. They will be more aware of the need for good teachers than their parents have been.

Other predictions by Mr. Burkhard include public education at the junior college and college level, and a return to more parental responsibility for child training. It is his contention on the latter point that there will be a reaction to the loose home conditions that have been so prevalent in the past six or seven years due to war and the housing shortage. He believes that young people who have grown up in a period of unrest and instability will tend to be more alert to the dangers of irresponsibility in dealing with their own children. Thus the schools may be able to return to the home some of the burdens which have been thrust upon them, particularly in the field of character and religious training.

MORE BACKING FOR TEACHERS

Teachers are basking in the light of the greatest unsolicited campaign in the history of education. For the first time their financial needs are being trumpeted abroad by popular magazines, radio commentators and comedians, and influential laymen in general. It is a good omen, as well as a strange, if pleasant experience that cannot help but bring results. One of the best examples appeared in *Coronet* for October, and the Education Department of that magazine has since made it available in reprints that can be obtained for \$1.50 a hundred.

The article, by Charles Harris, was entitled, "Stop Cheating Your Children!" Written by a layman, it portrays splendidly the point-of-view of the middle-class citizen who has suddenly come to a shocked realization of the crisis in the schools and is determined to do something about it. Mr. Harris gives an impressive summary of the facts—the drain of good teachers from the profession, the increase of emergency teachers, the lack of trainees, the low salaries, and the small social prestige which has been the lot of teachers.

It is the last-mentioned feature in particular which makes Mr. Harris's article noteworthy. This lack of social esteem is one of the most serious causes of the decline in the popularity of teaching. It is an intangible factor which cannot be presented in statistics as salary differentials can; it is a very real thing nevertheless. Many teachers of good background and excellent education have been discouraged

and embittered by it. They have resented the unreasonable and invisible wall which existed in the community between them and the local social groups to which they should have belonged. They have been forced to form their own society among themselves, for rarely does a community make an honest effort to draw its teachers into its own orbit. Unless they are natives, teachers are likely to remain "outlanders" though they teach in the same community all their lives.

It is as an attack on this particular problem that Mr. Harris's article is especially good. He shows plainly what he and others should have done and can do about it. He proposes to make a point of getting to know the teachers in his town, not as teachers, but as individuals—as people whom he would like to have in his home as friends. He plans to play golf and bridge with them, get them in clubs and other social groups to which he and his family belong, and generally make them as much a part of his social relationships as he does the business men who have always been his associates. He is going to get some other people to do the same thing.

Moreover he is going to take what steps he can as a citizen and taxpayer to see that teachers' salaries are raised to a point commensurate with their real importance to the community. Who Mr. Harris is or where he lives is unknown to the writer; perhaps he is only a symbol. But if the inspiration of his article leads some of our self-centered citizens to see the light and follow his lead, he will have done a vast amount of good for the cause of education and the children.

EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES ABROAD

With UNESCO now a functioning international organization receiving considerable public interest, it is likely that there will be an increasing amount of curiosity concerning education in other countries. One of the chief purposes of UNESCO is to raise the standards of public education throughout the world and publicity will of course be one of the principal weapons for its accomplishment. We can look for more space in the press devoted to articles on national school conditions than ever before. This is highly desirable, for no one nation possesses a school system which can be taken

as a model by all others. Ultimate standards of good educational practice will have to be a composite of the achievements and ideals of several countries, and the interchange of information and experience will be most helpful in bringing this about.

The Educational Forum for November contained two worthwhile articles along these lines: "Reorienting Japanese Education," by I. L. Kandel, and "The Educational Situation in Australia," by G. S. Browne. The Summer, 1946, issue of *The Harvard Educational Review* also had an article on Japanese education by William O. Penrose. An interesting report on the schools and teachers of Okinawa, by Lieutenant Commander Ransom L. Eng, was published in the December *School Life*. Each of these should find many readers among American educators.

TEEN-AGE WORKERS

Teen-age employment has continued at a high level since the war ended, according to the *Annual Report* of the National Child Labor Committee issued by Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand, General Secretary, under the title, *Child Labor—in the First Year After the War*.

Exact figures for 1946 are not yet available, but estimates based on employment certificate and other figures indicate that approximately 2,000,000 young people fourteen to eighteen years old are still employed full or part time—a million less than at the peak of wartime employment and a million more than were employed before the war.

That the decline in the employment of teenagers has not been as rapid and spectacular as had been anticipated can be accounted for largely by the fact that, so far, the level of employment generally has not declined. The curve of youth employment has always followed the curve of general employment.

"With jobs still to be had," Mrs. Zimand stated, "the young people who left school for work during the war have not returned to school to any noticeable degree and their ranks continue to be augmented by new school-leavers. The jobs and the pay are not as good as they used to be for there is no longer a large market for the services of teen-age workers in industrial occupations and they have to find

their employment mainly in the less well-regulated and less well-paid trade and service jobs, or in agriculture, in which both regulation and good pay are conspicuous mainly by their absence.

"Short of another depression—and unemployment is a costly price to pay for increased school attendance—most of these young workers are lost to the schools for good. 'Back to School' has become a useless slogan, for a return to high school is considered 'kid stuff' by the seasoned teen-age war worker. This problem was foreseen when school leaving mounted rapidly and high school enrollments decreased with equal rapidity between 1941 and 1945. States and communities were urged to make provision for the needs of those who took full-time jobs before they had finished high school by establishing special courses and training programs for them. Little or nothing of this nature has been provided, however, and it is unlikely that the inadequate education of this group will ever be supplemented."

For the future, efforts must be turned to ways of making "Stay-in-School" a reality, instead of merely another empty slogan, for the young people now in school, Mrs. Zimand said. The following four-point program to accomplish this, outlined in the Committee's Annual Report, emphasizes both the legislative and educational aspects of holding young people longer in school.

First, a considerable number of fourteen- and fifteen-year-old children are continuing to leave school for employment. Efforts must be redoubled to eliminate exemptions for children under sixteen years in compulsory attendance laws and to bar all employment during school hours for children under sixteen.

Second, the reduction in child labor has been least in miscellaneous part-time occupations—the type of work which is usually least desirable and least well regulated as to hours and conditions of work. Efforts must be concentrated on regulating the type and amount of employment which school-age children are permitted to undertake in addition to their school work.

Third, illegal child labor, although apparently somewhat less than during the war years, is still prevalent. With the tremendous war-time pressure on Labor Departments abating

to some degree, it should be possible to secure a much higher degree of compliance with child labor regulations. Enforcement procedures should be analyzed, and, where necessary, additional personnel, higher qualifications for personnel and larger appropriations for the enforcement of the law should be urged.

Fourth, probably the major child labor problem is the very large number of young people who leave school for work before they complete high school. The extent of school drop-outs is considered by many educators to be the major problem in secondary education today. Increasingly educators are recognizing that this is not solely—perhaps not primarily—due to the financial inability of young people to continue in school—but rather to factors that lie within the province of the school to remedy. Early termination of school life is being recognized as basically the result of maladjustment to or lack of interest in school. There is need for an intensive study of a large number of young people who have dropped out of school to determine the real factors that prompted their withdrawal from school and what types of school program might have encouraged them to remain.

NOTES

One of the best features of *School Life*, the monthly periodical of the U. S. Office of Education, is its bibliographical department. Each issue contains several pages of annotated references on some topic of interest to teachers. The November number had a bibliography of courses of study in the social studies field, providing all the necessary information on their nature and where they could be obtained. The December issue had a list of references on Iran, including books, pamphlets, maps, and bibliographies. It was divided into two sections, one for the average student, and one for those concerned with a more thorough and serious study of the country. The annotations are brief but critical and helpful. Each issue of *School Life* also includes a descriptive list of government publications which have recently appeared and deal with subjects of interest to schools.

Vocational Trends for December had an article entitled: "What Good is Social Science?" It may help some harassed teacher give a satisfactory answer to this question asked by

one of her pupils. It describes particularly some of the fields of employment open to those who specialize in the social studies subjects, including such occupations as psychologist, economist, and social worker.

A monumental piece of historical source material recently published by the U. S. Government Printing Office is an eight-volume set containing all the evidence for the prosecution in the Nuremberg War Crimes Trial. It has been arranged in such a way as to facilitate its use by the lay public. The set is obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents for \$18.00.

Poland of Today is a monthly publication of the Polish Embassy in New York and is a useful source for a great deal of worth-while descriptive information and statistics on Poland. It may be obtained for ten cents a copy from the publishing office at 151 East 67th Street, New York 21, N. Y.

The British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., published many excellent pamphlets during the war which helped interpret Britain and her ways of life to American school children. More recently this same agency has made available to American schools a series of films which portray the life and customs of England. They can be rented for a small service charge either from the New York office or from offices in eight other cities across the continent. The films range in length from about fourteen to twenty-five minutes. Among the subjects available are: "Cornish Valley," "Country Town," "Crofters," "Fenlands," "The Grassy Shires," "We of the West Riding," and "Children on Trial," the last-mentioned being a feature-length picture dealing with the problems of juvenile delinquency and Britain's efforts to combat it.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

The Family from Institution to Companionship.

By Ernest W. Burgess and Harvey J. Locke. New York: American Book Company, 1945. Pp. xv, 800. \$4.25.

The authors have written a text for college students, which is particularly valuable because of the completeness and recency of the research included, and is suitable for courses on the family in sociology departments.

The central thesis of the book is "that the family in historical times has been and at present is, in transition from an institution to a companionship. In the past the important factors unifying the family have been external, formal and authoritarian . . . at present its unity inheres more and more in such interpersonal relations as the mutual affection, the sympathetic understanding and the comradeship of its members."

The discussion centers around four major sections of which the first one is "The Family in Social Change." Comparisons of the Ameri-

can family are made with animal and primitive groups and with Chinese, rural, urban, Negro and Russian families. Each of these is illustrated by many cases and descriptions which make the varied ways of living very vivid and very readable. They are selected to be provocative and can be used as a starting point for class discussions.

The second section, "The Family and Personality Development," emphasizes the inter-relatedness of culture and personality and stresses the family as a "former" of personality and the importance of social contacts and communication in personality development. Again many illustrations are given. A chapter on psychogenic conditioning brings out a number of controversial issues, among which is the relation of psychoanalytical concepts to culture factors in the formation of personality. The effect the expectations of society have on the roles the individual plays and the interpretations of the inner motivations of behavior as

revealed in the fundamental wishes of the personality are discussed at length and interpretations made in relation to the various schools of psychoanalytical thought.

In the section of "Family Organization" the question of how unity is developed in a companionship family through affection, interdependence, understanding and compatibility, celebrations and traditions, is analyzed and there are chapters on love and courtship, mate selection, marital success and adjustment, and prediction of marital adjustment—in which the studies in this field are covered and integrated.

The last section deals with "Family Disorganization and Reorganization," including the effects of changing economic and social conditions, such as mobility, family crises and disruptions, the war and the efforts which are being made to help families reorganize.

To a reviewer faced with group after group of young college men and women who are anticipating marriage and who want specific help in what they can do to make their marriage and homes yield the happiness they are seeking for—who are groping for enduring values in marriage and family life in a chaotic world and many of whom come from homes broken by tensions and conflicts or divorce and desertion—a text like this seems not to have the meat for which they are looking. The facts as far as we know them are all there—logically arranged and told in an interesting way. But what *are* the values which can be built into marriage and family life and how can they be built? Do we know how a group of individuals can learn to achieve these interrelations and build for permanency and content?

How can we challenge young men and women to make the attempt to center their lives in their marriage and their families and feel the effort is worth while? How can the woman's role be made more satisfying? We need books which will stimulate attempts to live out the answers to these questions and make an appeal for sustained effort even under trying conditions.

We need more specific help about what values can be made to work in our kind of society, and how they may be achieved by ordinary

men and women interested in their own marriages and in making their families as successful and satisfying as possible.

ESTHER MCGINNIS

State Teachers College
Buffalo, New York

American Leadership in a Disordered World: Role of the Social Studies in the Atomic Age. Volume 43 (1946) of *Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies*: George I. Oeste, Editor, Olney High School, Philadelphia 20, Pa. Pp. vii, 88. \$1.00.

For three years the Middle States Council for the Social Studies has been searching out the changing classroom practices, aims, ideas, and problems, as a result of the war. In Volumes 41, 42 of its *Proceedings (History in the High School and Social Studies in the Elementary School and Significant Curriculum Developments in the Social Studies)*, the Council brought together the views of teachers from all grade levels about these matters and told what the teachers were thinking and doing and planning.

Thought and practice in our age of turmoil are bound to be experimental and should lead to better concepts and actions. In such a time it is helpful to know the thought of competent colleagues. This latest volume of *Proceedings* assembles much of the best current thinking about the part that social studies teaching should play in today's world. The pattern of the thinking is woven by the thread of American responsibilities and duties as a world leader.

The purpose of this volume is primarily to orient teachers to their problem in mid-twentieth century classrooms. It supplies guides for choosing among the various roads to travel, including those pointed out in the two earlier volumes. We are too confused in our startling times to know assuredly what route to take. This volume's counsel helps the teacher to choose wisely the ways for developing "competent, world-minded, and courageous American citizens."

MORRIS WOLF.

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Three Outstanding Texts in the Social Studies

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This important new text deals directly with the personal problems of young people in family relations, dating, courtship, and marriage. It is suitable for any high school course in family life or family relationships. Special attention has been given to material on the questions about marriage and family living most often asked by high school youth.

Economics for Our Times*

Augustus H. Smith

Published only a short while ago, this economics text has already achieved an unusual record of popularity with students and teachers because of its especially understandable and interesting presentation, its up-to-dateness, its application of principles to everyday problems, and its emphasis on the consumer's point of view. Thirty-five practical problems dealing with real-life situations.

McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

330 W. 42nd Street New York 18, N. Y.

Educational Opportunities for Veterans. By Francis J. Brown. Washington: Public Affairs Press. Pp 142. Paper, \$2.00.

This handy little volume is a review of the educational and training opportunities provided for veterans under the "G. I. Bill of Rights" and under the public laws relating to the vocational rehabilitation of disabled veterans and certain non-veterans. Dr. Brown, who participated in the formulation of the "G.I." educational program, traces its development from an idea in the minds of a few educators and government leaders in 1942 to the varied application of this idea at all levels of instruction in 1946.

The reader will be surprised at the liberal interpretation of the laws for G. I. education. For example, "vocational rehabilitation" may include instruction to be a bartender or a doctor, and payments to veterans may be on a full-time or part-time basis.

The application of the program on the college, school, and industry level is fully described. One learns that in the college pro-

gram veterans must meet the same requirements and attend, in the main, the same classes as non-veterans. This practice differs from many local school programs where the veteran is segregated and proceeds at a more rapid rate in shorter, intensive courses than the non-veteran. In general, the local school programs have been found to be inadequate to the needs of the returning veteran, in spite of the fact that local school systems may receive a large share of federal financial aid in providing such facilities.

Dr. Brown also describes existing counselling activities for veterans on a national and local level by government agencies, schools, citizens' committees, and industry.

A full appendix contains such valuable information as the public laws affecting veterans' education, Veterans Administration interpretations, offices of the Veterans Administration, state vocational rehabilitation agencies, institutions with guidance centers, lists of trades and fields of study, approving agencies for veteran education, and a selected bibliography.

This volume should be most valuable to the ambitious veteran, the guidance counsellor, and the school administrator.

LEO LITZKY.

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

One World in the Making: The United Nations.

By William G. Carr. New York: Ginn and Company, 1946. Pp. 100. Illustrated. \$1.00.

The author, known to teachers through his N.E.A. position, served as a consultant to the United States Delegation at San Francisco and as Deputy Secretary of the United Nations Conference at London, which created the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.

The book gives an authoritative explanation of the United Nations in a simple, clear-cut manner with photographs, maps, and charts.

The first part gives a brief account of the conferences that preceded the San Francisco Conference, a description of the Conference at work, an explanation of the United Nations membership, and a description of the organization and functions of the six main parts of U. N.

Part II has three columns. The middle one is the official text of the charter, with space on each side for explanations of difficult parts. A list of the signers of the Charter is also given. The last part has test questions, a list of reference pamphlets, and questions to think about.

Secondary school teachers should know about this book because of the vital importance of the U. N. as a vehicle for peace and because of its arrangement and content being so adaptable for teaching.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

R. J. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Eclipse of the Rising Sun. By Richard Hart. With a Statement by Owen Lattimore. Foreign Policy Association. Headline Series March-April, 1946, No. 56. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

This brief survey presents pertinent facts about contemporary Japan from which the

reader may draw his own conclusions—the collapse of Japan, the defeat of the warlords, Japanese government, politics, economy, mental attitude and religion, the place of Japan in a peaceful world, her future and her new Constitution. A brief, annotated list of suggested reading is included.

Swords into Ploughshares. By Raleigh Schorling, and Others. Lansing, Michigan: Eugene B. Elliott, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. xx, 44.

In 1945 a graduate class of the University of Michigan's School of Education made a field study of the schools of the Armed Forces to discover what civilian education could learn from the military training program.

The investigators inspected the following kinds of schools: auto-mechanic, carpentry, clothing repair, watch repair, and the school for illiterates. However, they saw nothing of the language program, or of the schools especially established for women. Their report omits certain types of special education and that devoted to the high school subjects.

The study recognizes that the military program in time of war possessed certain advantages denied to any civilian program, such as unlimited money, unhampered selection of human material and designing of curricula.

As a result of the study six recommendations have been made: greater use of sense experience when staging learning situations, improvement of physical fitness and guidance programs, improvement in making the school day exciting and interesting, a better teacher education program, and an improved citizenship education program stressing right action as well as knowledge.

Prevent World War III. August-September, 1946. New York: Published by the Society for the Prevention of World War III, Inc., 1946. Pp. 33.

With all the vehemence and force at its command, this periodical warns that the defeated Germans are unrepentant and continue to menace the peace of the world.

A Report on a Study on Practical Democracy. Prepared by the Committee for Practical Democracy of the Public Schools of Atlantic City, New Jersey. Report No. 2. 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 56.

SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTS YOU WILL WANT TO USE

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by *Brown*

A new-type text for the community civics, orientation, or guidance course, **YOUR LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY** will teach the student the habits that develop good citizenship.

LIVING IN THE SOCIAL WORLD

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A high school sociology text presenting a background of social principles and organized around present-day social institutions.

AIR-AGE GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIETY

by *Chamberlain-Stewart*

Designed for courses in general geography at the high school level, this text is up to date and well-balanced.

Examination copies furnished upon request

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO.

Chicago

Philadelphia

New York

The *Report* presents an analysis of the inter-group relations, a declaration of principles, quotations and an annotated bibliography.

The Teaching of International and Intercultural Understanding in the Public Schools of California. By W. Henry Cooke. San Francisco, California: The International Center, 1946. Pp. 82.

This booklet has as its objective the creation in American society of those attitudes which will help our people live understandingly in the modern world.

The author recognizes that lists of courses do not necessarily reveal an effort at genuine international or intercultural understanding and that the method of teaching understanding is of great importance. To avoid increasing cultural distance it is essential first to build up an attitude of the great common interest between peoples before explaining the uniqueness of their national cultures. In other words similarities should be emphasized before differences are discussed.

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The greatest hindrance to fostering this understanding is adult prejudice.

The latter half of the booklet contains an excellent bibliography, briefly annotated for further reading.

What Every Voter Should Know and Do in 1946. By Joseph Gaer. C. I. O. Political Action Committee Pamphlet of the Month No. 9. New York: C. I. O. Political Action Committee, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 22. 10 cents.

Community organization and canvassing for registration and voting are simply explained and illustrated in this political primer. Its twelve main points are summarized in less than one line for each in the "Canvasser's Code."

What's Ahead for Me. By Archie J. Bahm. Austin, Texas: The Hogg Foundation, September, 1945. Pp. 29. Price: 1-9 copies, 25 cents each; 10-49 copies, 20 cents each; 50 or more copies, 12½ cents each.

This short pamphlet on guidance is concerned with occupation, marriage and education. It provides a general overview of the three important phases of guidance.

Radio is Yours. By Jerome H. Spingarn. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 121. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 29. 10 cents.

The author, formerly an attorney with the Federal Communications Commission, declares that radio listeners have the right and the power to obtain better programs.

Few people realize that the public owns the airwaves and can participate in controlling their regulation. When groups of informed individuals believe that their local radio stations have failed to maintain proper standards, these groups can ask the Federal Communications Commission to hold a hearing on the station's application for renewal and appear as witnesses.

Toward Mental Health. By George Thorman. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 120. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1946. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

The publication of this pamphlet is an initial step in launching the national campaign on mental health. The purpose of the cam-

paign is to educate the American public to a sound and sympathetic approach toward mental illness and to aid in its early recognition and treatment. Public financial support is being sought to promote clinics and mental institutions for prevention, early treatment and research.

In addition, legal reform is needed to provide adequate protection for the mentally ill and make unnecessary court commitments, jail detentions, and loss of civil rights.

Briefly, there is great need for a nationwide program of public education, carried on jointly by professional organizations, government agencies, and citizen groups.

A bibliography is included.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Significant Curriculum Developments in the Social Studies: A Continuation of the Study of Secondary and Elementary School Social Studies Programs Inaugurated by the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. Volume 42 of the *Annual Proceedings, 1944-1945*. Edited by George I. Oeste, Olney High School, Philadelphia: The Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1946. Pp. 136. Paper cover, \$1.00.

A cooperative study of social studies teaching.

American Leadership in a Disordered World: The Role of the Social Studies in the Atomic Age. Volume 43 of the *Annual Proceedings, 1944-1945*. Edited by George I. Oeste, Olney High School, Philadelphia: The Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1946. Pp. vii, 88. \$1.00.

A continuation of the theme of the two preceding volumes.

The Social Effects of Aviation. By William Fielding Ogburn. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. 755. Illustrated. \$5.00.

The book attempts to foresee the changes that are coming because of aviation.

The Valley of Oil. By Harry Botsford. New York: Hastings House, 1946. Pp. 278. \$3.00.

A story of the early growth of the oil industry in western Pennsylvania.



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PHILADELPHIA 30, PA.

Horace Greeley: Printer, Editor, Crusader. By Henry Luther Stoddard. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946. Pp. xiv, 338. \$3.50.

A biography.

The Consumer's Economic Life. By Jessie Graham and Lloyd L. Jones. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1946. Pp. x, 555. \$1.92.

A textbook of consumer education on the secondary school level.

As We Were: Family Life in America, 1850-1900. By Bellamy Partridge and Otto Bettman. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp. 184. Illustrated. \$4.50.

A story in pictures and text of life in the United States in the last half of the nineteenth century.

World Congress on Air Age Education. Edited by Jasper M. Rowland. New York: Air-Age Education Research, 1946. Pp. 115. Paper cover. \$1.00.

Proceedings and abstracts of speeches of an eight-day conference sponsored by the American Airlines.

Today's Civics. Prepared by the Current Events Editors of American Education Press, Inc. New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1946. Pp. 49. 24 cents.

For use in social studies classes, grades seven to twelve.

Planning and Paying for Full Employment. Edited by Abba P. Lerner and Frank D. Graham. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946. Pp. 222. \$3.00.

Papers prepared by participants in the American Labor Conference on International Affairs at Princeton in 1944.

Your Marriage and Family Living. By Paul H. Landis. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp. xvi, 373. \$2.20.

A textbook for senior high school. In the American Home and Family Series, edited by Helen Judy Bond.

Democratic Experience and Education in the National League of Women Voters. By Sara Barbara Brumbaugh. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. 115. \$2.10.

A study of the practical education in politics by the National League of Women Voters from its beginning.

Vitalized American History. By Maurice B. Rovner and J. Alexis Fenton. New York: College Entrance Book Company, 1946. Pp. 320. 75 cents.

A student's handbook for review.

Audio-Visual Materials in the High School: With Special Applications to the Social Studies. By Frances Norene Ahl. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1946. Pp. 165. \$2.50.

Deals with the problems and procedures in the use of audio-visual aids.

History of The Pennsylvania State College. By Wayland Fuller Dunaway. State College, Pa.: The Pennsylvania State College, 1946. Pp. xiv, 540. \$3.50.

A history of the College from its beginning to 1942.

Civics for Youth. By James B. Edmondson, Arthur Dondineau, and Mildred C. Letton. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. 405. Illustrated. \$1.88.

A textbook in the field of civics.

Hawaii's Japanese: An Experiment in Democracy. By Andrew W. Lind. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1946. Pp. viii, 264. \$3.00.

Published in cooperation with the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations.

The Atomic Bomb. Compiled by Julia E. Johnson. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1946. Pp. 335. \$1.25.

Volume 19, number 2, of the *Reference Shelf*, collections of articles and bibliographies on timely subjects for public discussion.

The American Jewish Year Book, 1946-1947. Edited by Harry Schneiderman and Julius B. Maller. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America, 1946. Pp. xii, 691. \$3.00.

A summary of events of Jewish interest in the United States and abroad.

Human Factors in Management. Edited by Schuyler Dean Hoslett. Parkville, Missouri: Park College Press, 1946. Pp. 322. \$4.00.

A number of contributions by specialists in the field of human relations problems of management.